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An Investigation of Students' Responses to Arabic and English Used by EFL Teachers Depending on their L1 Background in a Saudi Arabian University

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Abstract

This thesis focused on students' cognitive and affective responses to Arabic (L1) and English (L2) used by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers who come from different L1 backgrounds in English (L2) classrooms in an English institute at a university in Saudi Arabia. Consideration of students' responses to teachers' use of English was crucial in this study as it helped to shed light on students' cognitive and affective responses to the Arabic used by teachers. In addition, students' preferences for EFL teachers in respect of their L1 background (native Arabic speaker teacher, native English speaker teacher and non-native English/Arabic speaker teacher) were examined. In order to be able to investigate the students' responses and preferences, it was necessary, firstly, to develop a deeper understanding of what they were responding to, namely the extent to which, and the conditions under which, teachers employ Arabic in the L2 classrooms. In addition, the extent to which teachers' use of Arabic varies according to their students' level of proficiency was also explored. Teachers' views on their own use of Arabic were also identified in order to establish the extent to which their views coincided with that of their students.

This study adopted a qualitative approach and data were gathered through classroom observations, semi-structured interviews (in form of stimulated recall interviews), and open-ended questionnaires. Classroom observations were used to identify the extent, as well as the functions, of teachers' L1 use and to examine whether the degree of teachers' Arabic use varied according to their students' level of proficiency. In addition, stimulated recall interviews were employed to explore students' cognitive and affective responses to their teachers' L1 and L2 use and students' preferences for their teachers' L1 background. The open-ended questionnaires were used to understand whether teachers' and students' views on the use of L1 by teachers coincided.

The findings suggest that the way that Arabic is used by teachers in the Saudi EFL classroom varies according to the teachers' L1 background in terms of the consistency, frequency, and the functions of the Arabic used by those teachers. Regarding students' preferences for their EFL teachers, more than one third of the students (37%), the largest group regarding this aspect, preferred to be taught by a competent English teacher irrespective of their nationality or background; this clearly indicates that some

students put emphasis on the pedagogy and professional skills of teachers rather than on their native status. The findings also suggest that a number of common cognitive responses are employed by students, mainly comparing English and Arabic grammatical rules, memorising new words, and making connections between Arabic and English. Furthermore, the results indicate that for most students (21 out of 30) Arabic helped to keep the affective filter low, making them feel more comfortable, happy and less anxious, whereas Arabic made the other students uncomfortable and more anxious. Moreover, it was found that the most frequently used strategies when students responded to teachers' English use were mental translation, use of dictionaries and requesting clarification, while the least frequently used strategies were finding alternative English synonyms or avoidance. Finally, the findings indicate that teachers' views generally coincide with students' views about teachers' use of Arabic.

The findings from this study may benefit language teachers and programme designers to help them develop training programmes for teachers that take into account learner preferences regarding the background of their EFL teachers, particularly in the field of teaching EFL in the Saudi context. More importantly, the study suggests that learners should be trained how to use L1 as a successful learning strategy and that teachers should raise students' awareness, especially those students with low proficiency in English, that Arabic can be used as a cognitive strategy, for example, to compare the similarities and differences between L1 and L2.

Declaration

I declare that the work submitted is my own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to other work of others. It has not been submitted for any other degree or professional qualification.

Shams Bukhari

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List of Abbreviations

CIH	Comprehensible Input Hypothesis
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CS	Code Switching
ELI	English Language Institute
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
FL	Foreign Language
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
LLSs	Language Learning Strategies/ Language Learner Strategies
L1	First language, Own language, Mother tongue
L2	Second language, Target language
NASTs	Native Arabic Speaker Teachers
NESTs	Native English Speaker Teachers
NNEASTs	Non-Native English/Arabic Speaker Teachers
NNESTs	Non-Native English Speaker Teachers
PYP	Preparatory Year Programme
TBL	Task Based Learning
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of other Languages

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

This research study investigated students' responses to teachers' use of Arabic (L1) in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms at the English Language Institute (ELI), King Abdulaziz University (KAU) in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). It focused on three groups of teachers in the EFL classroom; native Arabic speaker teachers (NASTs), native English speaker teachers (NESTs) and non-native English/Arabic speaker teachers (NNEASTs). The extent of the teachers' use of Arabic was explored and compared for all groups of teachers and the functions of such use were identified (background questions, provided in section 1.7). This study focused on investigating students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background as well as their responses to teachers' use of both Arabic and English (main questions, provided in section 1.7). However, exploring students' responses was the main interest, while exploring their preferences was of secondary interest. In addition to this, teachers' views on their Arabic use were examined to establish whether such views coincided with that of their students (follow up question, provided in section 1.7).

This introductory chapter firstly discusses the contextual background of the study considering the educational system as well as the English language teaching context in the KSA. Then, a detailed description of the English Language Institute (ELI) where this research was carried out is provided. After that, the rationale for the study, its background and its significance are explained followed by the research aims and research questions. Finally, the structure of the thesis is outlined with regards to the content of each chapter.

1.2 The contextual background of the study

1.2.1 The education system in Saudi Arabia

An understanding of Islam is fundamental to understand the system of education in Saudi Arabia as Islam and its principles are applied at all levels of education (Al-Otaibi, 2004). One of these principles is that males and females are taught separately so there are particular schools and universities for males and others for females. This segregation encompasses the gender of the teachers, the students and the whole staff. Other factors that lead to the segregation of learners in the educational system in Saudi Arabia are related to the social and cultural traditions of Arabian society (Wiseman, 2010). Thus, Saudi Arabia is considered to be one of the few countries that do not have any co-educational institutions. Both male and female students receive the same quality of education despite the segregation of learners (Al-Johani, 2009) as the number of years that students spend in schools (discussed below), as well as the curriculum followed, is the same for both genders (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015).

The system of education in Saudi Arabia is divided into three levels: kindergartens, schools and universities. There are public kindergartens (at no cost to the user) as well as private ones; the same arrangement exists for schools and universities. Children start going to kindergarten at 3 years old and stay until 6 years old, after which they attend schools from 6-17 years old. Schools consists of three levels; primary (six grades), intermediate (three grades) and secondary (three grades). It is a compulsory regulation assigned by the Ministry of Education that students complete at least primary (6-11 years old) and intermediate (12-14 years old) levels of their education (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). After graduating from high school (15-17 years old), students can continue with their studies at university level (at 18 years old) in different majors and specialties.

With regards to the university level of education, there are a variety of majors and specialties that students can enrol in, based on their GPA (Grade Point Average). There is a compulsory foundation year for all majors where English is taught for two semesters. More detail about this is discussed in the next section.

1.2.2 English Language teaching context in Saudi Arabia

The official language in Saudi Arabia is Arabic and the English language is taught and spoken as a foreign language. Educational policymakers are aware of the fact that English is a global language, which needs to be taught officially as part of the national curriculum.

“One of the goals of the education system in the kingdom is to provide students with proficiency in English as a way of acquiring knowledge in the fields of sciences, arts and new inventions, and of transferring knowledge and the sciences to other communities” (Educational policy of Saudi Arabia, 1970 as cited in Elyas, 2011)

Teaching English language in Saudi Arabia has become very important and has been given great attention as English is considered an international language that needs to be learned (Al-Otaibi, 2004). The goal of teaching languages in general in Saudi Arabia entails “Furnishing the students with at least one of the living languages, in addition to their original language, to enable them to acquire knowledge, arts and useful inventions, transmit our knowledge and sciences to other communities” (Ministry of Education, 1974:13).

In state schools, a decision was made by the Ministry of Education in 2010 to introduce English teaching in the fourth year of primary schools (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015) as it was previously only taught in intermediate and secondary schools. One reason to commence teaching English in the fourth year of primary schools (when students are 9 years old) and not before, is based on the belief that interference might occur when attempting to acquire English and Arabic at the same time (Alrabai, 2015; Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). Therefore, students learn English for nine years, starting from the fourth year in primary school, comprising three years in primary school, three years in intermediate school and three years secondary school. Throughout each year, English is taught in four classes a week and each class lasts for 45 minutes.

With regards to private schools, English teaching is introduced at kindergarten stage as part of the policy of each school and is extensive, depending on each school's independent curriculum which they might teach alongside the compulsory curriculum

used in public schools. Therefore, when students start their university studies, they differ from each other in respect of the level of proficiency in English depending on various factors, one of which is the school from which they graduated. It is not necessarily the case that students who graduate from private schools will automatically enrol in private universities.

The context of teaching English in higher education in Saudi universities is different. English is taught compulsorily during the first year (two semesters) of university studies in all faculties. After this year, students can specialise in different majors. This year is termed the foundation or preparation year. In some scientific majors (e.g. dentistry, medicine) and technical colleges, English is the medium of instruction while Arabic is the medium of instruction in majors that are non-scientific (e.g. humanities) (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). Most English teachers in Saudi universities are non-Saudi, and include Arabic teachers from different Arab countries (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). There are other teachers from different background such as English native speaker teachers from the UK and USA, and others from non-Arab countries such as Pakistan and India. This model of recruitment is due to the deficiency in the number of Saudi teachers with higher qualifications such as Master's and PhD degrees (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015).

1.2.3 English language teaching in Saudi EFL classrooms

Teaching English in Saudi EFL classrooms faces many constraints. In both Saudi schools and universities, English classes tend to be teacher-centered (Al-Shehri, 2004; Fareh, 2010; Sofi, 2015; Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). This means that the teacher speaks most of the time during the class session and students are rarely given the opportunity to ask a question or respond (Fareh, 2010).

English language teaching in Saudi classrooms employs a combination of Grammar Translation and Audio-Lingual Methods. Elyas (2011) pointed out that the KSA Ministry aims to resolve this issue by introducing Western, chiefly USA, pedagogy, which supports a Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Approach. In addition, academics at the KSA universities have been sent abroad to learn Western pedagogies (Elyas, 2011). He further states that pedagogy is not explicitly addressed in the curriculum documents, and that the “explicit introduction of Western CLT and

problem-based learning approaches that has occurred elsewhere in the Gulf has not occurred in the KSA context to date” (Elyas, 2011: 97).

In addition, English teaching is carried out through memorisation (Fareh, 2010; Alkubaidi, 2014). Students memorise paragraphs and sometimes do so without even comprehending the meaning of what is written (Alkubaidi, 2014). Alabdelwahab (2002) highlighted the same point as he reported that the majority of students in the Saudi EFL context do not know how to understand unfamiliar words. They appear not to know how to identify the connotations of new words because they do not understand their basic meaning. The reason for this may be due to the method of English teaching used by teachers that depends on memorisation of new words rather than developing the meaning from the context (Al-Qudairy, 2010). Therefore, the students pass their examinations with high marks by using the technique of memorising the test questions derived from their textbooks (Alkubaidi, 2014). However, the English teaching curriculum, especially at university level, requires students to be creative and able to develop critical thinking, a skill which Saudi students lack, and this causes frustration for both teachers and students (Alkubaidi, 2014).

Therefore, when students join the university, they are still as weak in English as they were in their schools and they encounter many obstacles in their English classes (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). As a result, EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia deal with a challenging teaching environment as English is only used and practiced inside the classroom (Ali and Ammar, 2005). Fareh (2010) claimed that students' exposure to English is minimal and Arabic is frequently used in English classes. This is because Arabic is the dominant language for communication in daily activities in Saudi Arabia and students are only exposed to English inside the classroom. This has led to very limited opportunity to communicate in English outside, or even inside, the English classroom (Al-Otaibi, 2004). However, the context of teaching EFL in Saudi Arabia is not unique, as in many countries there is an L1, which is used in daily activity, and foreign languages are limited to classroom use.

Recently, educationists, as well as the government in Saudi Arabia, have become aware of issues with regards to students' low achievement in English at both school and university level (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). The majority of students graduate

from schools with a low proficiency level in English although they have been learning English for nine years (Al-Johani, 2009) due to the various factors, some of which have been mentioned. Alrashidi and Phan (2015:38) discuss some of these factors and note that:

"The main causes for this low competence in the English language among students in Saudi schools and universities include teacher-centred instruction, teachers' reliance on traditional teaching methodologies such as the use of Arabic to teach English, students' use of memorization as a primary learning strategy, students' lack of motivation and encouragement from the teacher, lack of real-world practice, students' assumption that English is useless in their academic and social life, and the misconception among some of the society members that English may affect the native language, customs and culture."

Elyas (2011) points out that Arabic/Islamic culture is not "static" and outside the classroom, English has a significant role in Arabic youth life and identity. Elyas (2011) argues that the dread of being Westernised appears to arise from fear of losing Islamic/Arabic identity. Regarding English teaching, there are economic as well as political pressures to extend English usage and to teach Western culture in the KSA syllabi. The KSA is influenced by a combination of factors including political and cultural influences and pressures. However, the KSA holds a firm stance regarding the protection of its Islamic identity and the KSA government endorses the notion that the KSA is the "cradle of Islam". This stance enacted "the promotion of the Arabic language (the language of the Qur'an) and culture" (Elyas, 2011, p. 27). In this respect, Al Haq and Smadi (1996) distributed questionnaires among random university students in Saudi Arabia. As Saudi Arabia places heavy emphasis on religious educational ideology it was not surprising to see that 73.6% of the students believed that, by learning English, Saudi citizens could preach Islam to non-Muslims (1996: 313). Students further reported that it was a "national duty" to protect Saudi Arabia from economic, social, educational, and cultural underdevelopment (1996: 313).

The particular context of where the research for this present study took place (at the English Language Institute), which is to a great extent similar to any typical EFL classroom, is explained below.

1.2.4 The English Language Institute (ELI)

This study was conducted within the female section of the ELI. I originally worked there as one of the EFL teachers and this opportunity was a benefit of once being one of the employees in the institution. Being an insider means that I already had solid knowledge about the ELI, its teachers, the atmosphere and the students, which meant that there was no need for a familiarisation process with the place where this research took place.

As discussed earlier, all students at university level must enrol in the foundation year which forms the first year of their university studies. During this year, English is taught for two semesters. All universities in Saudi Arabia have centres and institutes which only teach EFL in order to run the Preparatory Year Programme (PYP) (Shah et al., 2013). The study concentrated on the first foundation (preparation) year and those female students undertaking this compulsory year that included studies in English and a number of other subjects. It is important to note that the majority of these students attended state schools, which means that their proficiency in English was poor (Baeshin, 2016).

All teachers, students and staff in the section under study were female as a separate section exists for males, which is traditional in Saudi Arabian schools and universities. In the ELI, there are around 216 teachers from different L1 backgrounds. 120 are Saudi teachers while 96 are non-Saudi teachers, including English native speakers, Arabic native speakers and non-English/non-Arabic native speakers. These teachers' qualifications varied; about 50% of them had a bachelor's degree, 40% had a Master's, and 10% had a PhD. Teachers' also varied in their training and teaching experience, which brought diversity to the classroom (Baeshin, 2016).

The ELI policy makers promote the approach that learning and teaching the L2 effectively requires exclusive use of English so that students should be exposed to

English as much as possible (Baeshin, 2016). Therefore, according to the ELI policy, English is the only medium of instruction; it strongly rejects the use of Arabic in the classroom and teachers are not permitted to do this.

The estimated number of students who enrol for the Preparatory Year Programme (PYP) is approximately 6,000 each year. Students are assessed mid-term and in final examinations. After passing this foundation year, students expect to specialise in their preferred major discipline, therefore this initial period is considered critical; this is particularly the case with regards to passing English examinations as the failure rate is 59 or below out of 100.

With regards to the courses at the ELI, it offers an intensive English PYP for the foundation year students which is comprised of four compulsory modules to be studied during this year as part of the university requirements. These modules are as follows: level one (beginner), level two (elementary), level three (pre-intermediate) and level four (intermediate). Before students start their English courses (the four modules), they must take a placement test in order to be placed in the right level. However, even after being allocated to a particular level, teachers face the challenge that students with different levels of proficiency are found within one class as the academic year progresses. For instance, in an intermediate class which is supposed to be the highest level in the ELI, the teacher may find weak students who are supposed to be beginners or pre-intermediate. This is because that the module system allows students to automatically move to the next level after passing the final exam for that particular level even if a student gets the lowest pass grade of 60 percent. This means that moving to the next level does not necessarily mean that a student's proficiency in English has improved. This may be problematic for the teachers in the ELI, and for me as a researcher, when it comes to identifying what is considered a beginner. Students are exempted from taking the English courses at the ELI when they provide proof that they have scored 4.5 or above in IELTS, or 400 or above in TOEFL.

Although students have already studied English at school for nine years, often, they still have not achieved satisfactory competence in English language. Therefore, students who graduate from state schools are considered beginners when they join the

PYP. English is taught for 18 hours per week and classes cover all skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. At the ELI, general English is taught using New Headway Plus textbooks which supports Communicative Language Teaching approach.

1.3 Rationale of the study

It is essential to consider how this study should be categorised and which side of the debate regarding the use of L1 in EFL classrooms it concurs with. In my experience as an English language teacher at university level, students are very much concerned with the need to learn English in order to pass the examinations at the end of courses. These courses are compulsory in the foundation year and are considered as a means of determining whether or not students can continue with their university studies. Consequently, the need to pass the English examinations is a primary motivational factor for students, and influences the manner in which teaching takes place, leading some teachers to use the L1 as a facilitator of L2 teaching. Here I am suggesting that since they need to pass the examinations, the L1 is felt to be needed to increase comprehension and ease tension of students.

From experience, it has been noticed that using the L1 is a common practice in language classrooms at the ELI, especially if the teacher and the students share the same L1. In such instances, the teacher used the L1 to facilitate certain functions such as giving instructions and concept checking, especially when students have low proficiency in the L2. However, in situations where the teacher does not share the L1 with their students but still attempts to use it, this may indicate that there is a need for an in-depth exploration of L1 usage by English teachers for whom Arabic is considered a foreign language.

Another reason for the interest in the topic arose based on informal discussions with the teachers at the ELI. I noticed that many of them were oblivious to the students' reactions and attitudes towards their use of Arabic, and how the students thought and felt when Arabic was used. Therefore, it is hoped that the findings of this study will raise teacher awareness about students' cognitive and affective responses when

teachers use Arabic or English. Accordingly, the teachers can plan in advance how to use the L1 in a principled way in their English classes. By focusing on students' preferences, it is hoped that the results of this study will help classrooms become more student-centred.

Teachers' use of Arabic is also examined in relation to students' levels of proficiency. From my own teaching experience, during informal conversations with students (their English proficiency level was beginner) it seems that they preferred to be taught by teachers who speak some Arabic in the classroom, especially the beginners. However, it was not yet known how they responded to such use and how students with other levels of proficiency perceived this issue; this aspect was explored in this study. Students' level of proficiency in the language learning classroom is important to consider because it is a factor that may influence the level of teachers' L1 use in the classroom (further discussion is provided in Chapter Three, section 3.3).

1.4 Background to the study

The term 'codeswitching' (CS) has been defined differently according to the context in which it has been examined, but, in general, all definitions mainly involve the concept of using two or more languages at once. Gafaranga (2000: 327) pointed out that CS is a "bilingual conversation" which includes the use of two languages. Milroy and Muysken (1995: 7) defined CS as "the alternative use by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation". The switches in any bi- or multilingual utterance may take place within a single turn or between turns. In the language classroom, Liu (2010: 10) defines L1 use as the alternation between the L1 and L2 as a means of communication. Students with low-level L2 proficiency who cannot function equally well in both languages may use their L1 as a strategy to compensate for their lack of knowledge of the L2 (Brown, 2000). In this study, the term "L1 use" is used throughout, as L1 use and codeswitching are used interchangeably in the literature (Baeshin, 2016). When examining the literature, Baeshin (2016) found that in some research articles in the second or foreign language contexts, the term CS is used such as in Butzkamm (1998) and Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005), while in other papers, "L1 use" is used, such as in Sali (2014) and Storch and Wiggleworth (2003). Baeshin

(2016: 20) points out that the ambiguity of use in both terms may suggest that “both can be used interchangeably to fulfil similar functions”. She further cited Milroy and Muysken (1995) that CS is an “umbrella term” that encapsulates diverse bilingual behaviours. In the current study, the term CS is only used when presenting the empirical studies (discussed in Chapter Three) and where the researchers of these studies used it.

Use of the first language (L1) in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom has been, and continues to be, a controversial issue, which has received considerable attention in EFL research. In addition, the issue of whether or not to use the L1 in L2 classrooms is also controversial because views on the issue have varied, depending on the teaching approach prevailing at the time. For instance, using monolingual teaching in L2 classrooms, where L1 use is avoided, has been advocated by many theorists and language experts (Ellis, 1994; Krashen, 1981; 1982; Long, 1983; Swain, 1985).

By exploring teachers’ beliefs about the L1 and L2 in the south of England, Macaro (2001) proposed three positions (discussed in detail in Chapter Two, section 2.2). The first one is the virtual position, which perceives no pedagogical benefit in L1 use. The second one is the maximal position (Macaro, 2001). Proponents of this position perceive no pedagogical value in L1 use, but acknowledge that the ideal classroom does not exist in reality and therefore the L1 can be used as a last resort (Macaro, 2001). The third position sees some pedagogical benefit in L1 use, which Macaro (2001) referred to as the optimal position. Proponents of this position consider L1 use as a strategy that can enhance learning (Macaro, 2001). Researchers (e.g. Kern, 1994; Swain and Lapkin, 2000) who advocate optimal or judicious L1 use, argue that the L1 use is a communicative tool that aids negotiation of meaning and helps learners to complete tasks successfully. On the other hand, researchers who advocate the monolingual ideology allege that the use of the L2 only is the way to attain competence in the L2 (Chambers, 1991; Polio and Duff, 1994). In this present study, I explored whether the set of positions proposed by Macaro (2001) pertain to the ELI context.

Although researchers have suggested, in some cases, that forbidding the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom may enhance learning the L2, it is known to be the case that the L1 is, indeed, used, both at school or tertiary level. Interestingly, research studies,

which have been conducted with regards to L1 use in L2 classrooms, have produced conflicting results, and have presented different views that both support and reject L1 use in the EFL context (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989; Auerbach, 1993; Butzkamm, 1998; Schweers, 1999; Burden, 2001; Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2001; Miles, 2004; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Nazary, 2008; Kavaliauskienė, 2009; Macaro, 2009; Liu, 2010; Kafes, 2011). This diversity of views amongst linguists and researchers is “based on underlying differences in approach regarding the language classroom environment and the goal of language learning” (Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney, 2008: 250). (Empirical studies regarding L1 use in L2 classrooms are discussed and evaluated in Chapter Three).

1.5 Significance of the study

The main focus of the present study was to identify students’ responses to the L1 used by teachers from different L1 backgrounds as well as to examine whether Saudi university students have certain preferences with regards to their EFL teachers’ L1 background. As indicated earlier, identifying students’ responses was the main interest of this study but exploring their preferences was a secondary interest.

Students' responses to teachers' use of Arabic and English were explored. It is important here to explain what is meant by students’ responses. Cognitive response means the language learning strategies that are used by learners as a reaction to teachers' use of Arabic in the English classroom, whereas affective response means how students feel in response to teachers' Arabic use (see Chapter Two for more details). In addition, this study explored how students respond to their teachers’ use of English, especially when they do not understand what the teachers are saying.

In order to identify students’ responses to teachers’ L1 use and their preferences regarding their EFL teachers’ background, it was necessary to first establish the background of the study itself by examining and comparing the extent of Arabic used by all groups of teachers (NASTs, NESTs and NNEASTs) in the ELI and to identify the functions of the Arabic used by those teachers. This approach is clearly seen in section 1.6 where the research questions are listed and divided into background, main and follow-up questions.

This research was intended to fill the knowledge gap in the field of EFL learning and teaching in the KSA. Empirical studies that investigated L1 use in EFL classrooms in the KSA context have been limited, especially at the university level. Although the topic of L1 use in L2 classrooms has received significant attention within EFL research, research studies conducted with regards to Arabic use, particularly in EFL classrooms in the Saudi Arabian context, have been limited (Al Asmari, 2014; Machaal, 2012; Khresheh, 2012, Mahmoud, 2012; Alshammari, 2011, Al- Nofaie, 2010 and Al-Abdan, 1993) This has encouraged me, as an English teacher and an Arabic native speaker, to explore this controversial issue in more depth.

Furthermore, there is a dearth of research into language learning strategies used by students in Saudi EFL classrooms in response to teachers' use of the L1. Most studies have investigated L1 use within different EFL contexts, the functions of L1 used by teachers and students, and the attitudes of teachers and students towards it. To date, no research has been carried out to investigate students' strategic response to teachers' use of the L1. In addition to addressing this gap, this study investigated how students respond to teachers' use of English in comparison to students' responses to teachers' use of Arabic. Surprisingly, previous research studies have not sufficiently investigated students' strategic responses to their teachers' talk in the L2 (Macaro, 2014).

One significant aspect of this present research is that it provides a considerable contribution to language teachers and professional teaching practitioners, and also contributes to the existing literature on the subject. As mentioned earlier, although limited research has been carried out to investigate the issue of Arabic use in EFL classrooms within the Saudi context, particularly at university level (Al Asmari, 2014; Machaal, 2012; Khresheh, 2012, Mahmoud, 2012 and Alshammari, 2011), all of these studies were conducted to investigate teachers' and students' attitudes. No in depth consideration was made of what students do and feel, or what happens in their minds in response to teachers' use of Arabic. These gaps have motivated me to carry out research that seeks to investigate the use of Arabic in the English classroom from both teachers' and students' perspectives, with greater consideration being given than in previous studies to the cognitive and affective responses of students to this issue.

As there is a methodological gap with regards to using stimulated recall methodology to explore students' cognitive responses to teachers' use of Arabic and English, the current study provides a methodological contribution to the field of language teaching and learning in the KSA. By using students' introspective interviews or stimulated recall methodology, this study helps to portray a clear and original reflection on this issue, especially from the students' perspective (see Chapter Four for more details).

Attempting to explore students' cognitive and affective responses to teachers' use of Arabic is central to this research because the majority of previous research studies have not considered, in depth, students' reactions to teachers' use of Arabic. Furthermore, as students are part of the learning process, it is important to take into account how they feel and think in the classroom in order to ensure successful learning outcomes. This suggests that there is a space to conduct in-depth research to provide a fuller impression of the issue, as research into learning strategies and students' responses has "offered a radical new conceptualization of the language learning process, shifting the emphasis onto the individual learner" (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007:24).

More importantly, the present study is the first to examine the use of the L1 in Saudi EFL classrooms with regards to identifying students' cognitive and affective responses to teachers' Arabic use in comparison to students' responses to teachers' English use. In addition, this study is the first known research that used stimulated recall methodology in order to explore students' responses to teachers' Arabic use as well as English use in the context of teaching EFL in general, and specifically in the Saudi EFL context. This indicates that the present study contributes to the field of foreign language teaching in a higher education setting, which has not received much research attention to date, as it presents the perspectives of Saudi undergraduate students who are studying English in their first year foundation course. Furthermore, language teachers and programme designers may find the present study valuable for developing methodologies for teachers that are related to language learning strategies.

As this research examined the links between teachers' Arabic use and students' level of proficiency, and also explored how students react to such usage, it is anticipated that the results will contribute to designing training programmes for teachers that take into account learners' needs regarding the use of the L1 in the classroom, particularly

in the field of teaching EFL in the Saudi context. As this study explored students' preferences regarding their EFL teacher's background, it is hoped that the findings will assist ELI's officials in taking into account students' preferences when they assign teachers. It is also hoped that the study will inform teaching practices in the Saudi context, and encourage a shift from teacher-fronted to a learner-fronted learning.

1.6 Research aims

As limited research studies have been conducted to explore how students respond to L1 use by teachers from an L1 background, particularly within the Saudi EFL context, the primary aim of the present study was to shed light on students' preferences regarding their EFL teacher's background, their cognitive and affective responses to teachers' L1 and their responses to teachers' English use. In particular, the current study aimed to answer the research questions outlined in Section 1.7.

1.7 Research questions

This study aimed to answer the research questions as listed in 1.6.1, 1.6.2 and 1.6.3. The main research questions in this study are numbered 3, 4 and 5 (see below). Questions 1 and 2 provide the necessary background of understanding of what happens in the classroom with regards to teachers' use of Arabic, so that research questions 4 and 5 can be answered appropriately. The function of question 6 is as a follow up to discover to what degree teachers' and students' views on teachers' use of Arabic coincided. The research questions are divided as follows:

1.7.1 Background questions

1. Does the way that Arabic is used by teachers in university- level EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia at the ELI vary according to teachers' L1?
 - a) To what extent and how is Arabic used by native Arabic speaker teachers?
 - b) To what extent and how is Arabic used by native English speaker teachers?
 - c) To what extent and how is Arabic used by non-native English/Arabic speaker teachers?
2. Does the extent of teachers' usage of Arabic vary according to their students' level of proficiency?

1.7.2 Main questions

3. What are Saudi university students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background?
4. How do students respond to their teachers' use of Arabic?
 - a) What are students' cognitive responses to their teachers' use of Arabic?
 - b) What are students' affective responses to their teachers' use of Arabic?
 - c) Do these responses differ according to students' level of proficiency?
5. How do students respond to their teachers' use of English?
 - a) What are students' cognitive responses to their teachers' use of English?
 - b) What are students' behavioural responses to their teachers' use of English?

1.7.3 Follow-up question

6. To what extent do teachers' views on their Arabic use coincide with that of students?

1.8 Structure of the thesis

This PhD thesis is divided into nine chapters including the present introductory chapter.

Chapters Two and Three review the relevant literature with regards to the use of L1 in L2 classrooms. Chapter Two discusses the theoretical background of the study and covers several topics that are relevant to the research questions. These topics include Macaro's positions (2001) regarding L1 use in L2 classrooms and the teaching methods, and how different approaches and methods embrace or reject L1 use. Also included are English as a global language, language learning strategies and how L1 is used as a learner strategy, and the role of affective factors in L2 classrooms. Chapter Three presents the empirical studies which have been carried out investigating L1 use in L2 classrooms regarding the level and functions of teachers' L1 use, students' attitudes towards such use and its relevance to students' level of proficiency in both Arabic and non-Arabic contexts.

Chapter Four illustrates the methodology used in the study with regards to research approach, participants and sample, data collection methods, data analysis and ethical considerations.

Chapters Five, Six, Seven and Eight illustrate the findings of the study. Chapter Five presents the findings from classroom observations with regards to the extent of Arabic used by teachers and the functions of such use (research questions 1 and 2). Chapter Six explains the findings from the students' interviews. It identifies students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background, students' responses to teachers' use of Arabic and learning strategies that students use in response to their teachers' use of English (research questions 3, 4 and 5). Chapter Seven provides the findings from the open-ended questionnaires and presents the extent to which teachers' and students' views on the teachers' use of Arabic coincide (research question 6). Chapter Eight links the three findings chapters together by providing a summary and discussion of the results.

Chapter Nine serves as a conclusion for the study as it provides a summary of the study, its limitations, implications and recommendations for ELI teachers and policy makers, together with suggestions for further research.

This chapter has explained the contextual background of the study, the rationale of the study, its background and its significance. Then, research aims and research questions have been explained and finally, the structure of the thesis is outlined with a brief description of the content of each chapter. The following chapter discusses the theoretical background of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature regarding the use of L1 in L2 learning and teaching from a theoretical background perspective and is divided into five sections. The first section presents Macaro's (2001) theoretical positions regarding L1 use in L2 classrooms. In the second and third sections, English as a global language and what is meant by the native speaker are discussed. The fourth section explains learning strategies, as the main focus of the present study is students' responses to their teachers' use of Arabic and English. The last section in this chapter discusses affective factors and how they are crucial when learning the L2.

2.2 The theoretical positions of L1 use in L2 classrooms (Macaro's positions, 2001)

By reviewing the literature and investigating teachers' beliefs about L1 and L2 in the south of England, Macaro (2001) identified three positions, namely the virtual position, the maximal position and the optimal position. They have been chosen as the theoretical underpinning of the present study because they best explain the nature, meaning, challenges and functions of teachers' use of L1 in L2 classrooms. A discussion of these positions can also help to identify why EFL teachers may or may not choose to use L1 in their classes. These positions are relevant to research questions 1 and 2 (see below) that provide the necessary background of understanding what happens in the classroom with regards to teachers' use of Arabic and its functions. Research questions 1 and 2 are:

- 1. Does the way that Arabic is used by teachers in university- level EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia at the ELI vary according to teachers' L1?*
- 2. Does the extent of teachers' usage of Arabic vary according to their students' level of proficiency?*

Within the discussion about Macaro's framework, past and current teaching methods regarding the role of L1 in language teaching theory and practice are discussed in relation to Macaro's positions. It is important to trace the role that L1 use has played

in language teaching theory and practice over the years before investigating cognitive and affective reactions to L1 use in the classroom because understanding different attitudes towards L1 use is fundamental to teaching and learning theories. The methods EFL teachers use to manage the process of language instruction in their classrooms include or exclude L1 use to a greater or lesser degree, depending on these perspectives. Therefore, some methods used in language teaching are examined and categorised here, according to the classification of Macaro's three positions. The teaching methods examined include: the Grammar Translation Method, the Bilingual Method, the Concurrent Method, the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method, Communicative Language Teaching and Task Based Learning. Each of Macaro's positions is explained below in detail.

2.2.1 The virtual position

This position supports using the L2 exclusively and totally excludes L1 from the classroom, as it is believed by its proponents that L1 use has no communicative or pedagogical value. This position represents the monolingual approach in teaching the L2 with no consideration of the L1. Monolingual teaching in L2 classrooms has been supported by many theorists and language experts (Chambers, 1991; Ellis, 1994; Krashen, 1981; 1982; Long, 1983; Swain, 1985). One reason for the exclusion of L1 use is based on the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (CIH) put forward by Krashen (1981) who claimed that natural communication in the L2 is an important factor for L2 acquisition, with more focus on the message conveyed by learners rather than on the form of their utterances. According to the CIH, acquisition of a language occurs when learners have understood input that is higher than their current level of competence (Krashen, 1982). In addition, learners should be extensively exposed to comprehensible input of the L2 to ensure its mastery (Krashen, 1982).

Another theoretical rationale for rejecting L1 use when learning the L2 is highlighted by Long (1981) who proposed the Interaction Hypothesis, which is an extension of Krashen's CIH. Long (1981) argued that, in order to make input more useful and to understand its nature, awareness should be raised of the interactions engaged in by learners. This is because input becomes more comprehensible and useful through the

recycling and paraphrasing provided by interaction (Lantolf, 2000). In 1983, Long carried out research on 16 native - non-native speaker and 16 native - native speaker pairs. He found that native speakers modified their speech and their interaction structure when communicating with non-native speakers, firstly, to avoid conversational trouble and, secondly, to repair the discourse when trouble occurs (Long, 1983: 131). According to Long, speech modifications in the L2 help to facilitate understanding. Modified interaction, including confirmation checks¹, comprehension checks², and clarification requests³, is most important to provide comprehensible input (Long, 1983: 130).

Another interactionist who advocated interaction in the L2 was Swain (1985), who advanced the Output Hypothesis, which states that learning occurs when learners encounter a gap in their linguistic knowledge of the L2. This hypothesis highlights the significance of the CIH for learning a language. However, solely following this hypothesis is not sufficient for mastering an L2. Therefore, Swain (1985) claimed that speaking and writing in the L2 are necessary in order to master it. Thus, interaction in L2 learning is regarded as crucial because input has to be interactionally modified (Long, 1981), as does output (Swain, 1985), for L2 learning to occur. However, the work of the interactionists did not take into account contexts where the L2 is considered to be a foreign language, and where the speakers are not considered native speakers of the L2. Macaro (2010) pointed out that interactionist researchers investigated, almost exclusively, L2 settings. He argued, therefore, that the L1 position in acquisition according to their hypotheses was “unclear” and he questioned whether the L1 role is unrelated or had yet to be studied.

¹ Confirmation checks are moves that native speakers use in order to confirm what the other speaker has said in the preceding utterance by repeating, with rising intonation, what was produced in the preceding utterance. This usually involves repeating some or all of the preceding utterance such as: “*the man?* or *The man right?*” (Long, 1983: 136-7).

² Comprehension checks are expressions that native speakers use in order to confirm that the other speaker understands the preceding utterance in order to avoid communication breakdown such as: “*Right? OK?* and *Do you understand?*” (Long, 1983: 136-7).

³ Clarification requests are expressions that native speakers use to comprehend the preceding utterance of the other interlocutor by using (wh-) or Yes/No questions or uninverted questions with rising intonations or phrases such as: “*I don’t follow.*” or “*Try again.*” (Long, 1983: 136-7).

2.2.1.1 Viewpoints of researchers who support L1 exclusion

The use of L1 when teaching L2 has been widely investigated and questioned by researchers and language experts. One of the researchers and educators who was in favour of the total exclusion of L1 was Chambers (1991) who highlighted the importance of using the L2 constantly to focus on learning an L2. He assumed that L1 use in L2 classrooms weakens the progression of language acquisition, which leads to ignoring L2 input. In addition, he argued that, by exclusively using the L2 in all communications, learners will understand that language is the object of the study and an effective medium of communication in the classroom. However, Chambers (1991) did not cite evidence to support his claims which may indicate that more experimental studies are needed before asserting whether teachers should include or exclude L1 use from the L2 classroom. Such research studies will help teachers to recognise the point at which restricting interaction to the L2 might cause undesired effects (Bruen and Kelly, 2014). Negative beliefs toward L1 use in language classrooms have led to the emergence of approaches and methods that have either ignored or not supported the use of L1 in the L2 classroom.

Based on empirical evidence, an experimental design study using T-test in a Saudi EFL context at university level was employed by Mahmoud (2012). He found that L1 use in L2 classes led to low achievement in students. Therefore, based on these results he suggests that L1 should not be used in L2 classrooms. He further recommends that instructors and teachers should be trained in appropriate teaching strategies to ensure they use English exclusively and avoid using L1 in EFL classrooms.

2.2.1.2 Teaching methods that support L1 exclusion in L2 learning

The field of Second Language Acquisition emerged in the 1970s and 1980s and subsequently influenced the way L2 should be taught, with some hypotheses (e.g. Krashen, 1982, discussed below) ignoring the role of L1 use in L2 teaching (Hall and Cook, 2012). According to Hall and Cook (2012), from the late nineteenth century to the late twentieth century, the monolingual approach when teaching an L2 was considered superior and predominant due to the fact that L1 use in L2 teaching was generally viewed as a negative strategy. L1 use was perceived as restricting learners' opportunity to be exposed to real interaction in the L2, and using the L2 exclusively was firmly related to improved competence in that L2 (Polio and Duff, 1994). These

negative views led to the emergence of methods that did not support L1 use in the L2 classroom.

Some teaching methods discourage the use of L1 in L2 classrooms. One of the methods that excludes the use of the L1 is the Direct Method. It emerged as a result of the "Reform Movement" in the late nineteenth century, which intended to develop modern language teaching principles (Hall and Cook, 2012). Gouin (1831-1896) who was one of the main reformers, drew attention to those children acquiring their L1 (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Sauveur (1826-1907), another reformer, also supported natural principles of language learning, which accentuated the resemblance between L1 acquisition in children and L2 learning in adults. This attention to natural language learning principles led to what was termed "natural methods" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001) and led to the emergence of the Direct Method (Dodson, 1967)

The Direct Method advocated total abandonment translation in L2 teaching (Cook, 2010). The term derives from the founding idea that meaning is directly connected through the L2, with no need for translation (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Accordingly, this method depended on teaching the L2 with no translation or comparing and contrasting between the L1 and L2 (Brown, 2000; Macaro, 1997). Instead, the primary objective was to associate meaning with the L2 directly through the use of realia, pictures or mime (Larsen-Freeman, 2000) with L1 being prohibited as it was perceived to obstruct learning the L2 (Dodson, 1967). The L2 was to be learned through spontaneous spoken interaction in the same way as L1 is usually learned. Therefore, all classroom instruction and classroom activities would be carried out in the L2, with students actively involved in using the L2 and giving conversational activities an important place.

Nevertheless, the success of the Direct Method was limited. It was applied in private schools where learners were motivated to learn the L2 (Richards and Rodgers, 2001) whereas in state schools, learners were not highly motivated, which led the Direct Method to fail, especially because teachers in state schools were often native speakers of their students' L1 (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989).

Another method that prohibited the use of L1 in L2 classrooms was the Audiolingual Method. This method supported the exclusion of L1 usage in language classrooms

(Cook, 2008) as it was based on separating the L2 from the L1 (Stern, 1992) so that only the L2 was used. The Audiolingual Method was a development of the Direct Method, and was influenced by behaviourism (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989). One of the the key proponents of behaviourism theory is Skinner (1974) who built this theory based on his experiment that resulted in the idea that behaviours that are strengthened and encouraged are often maintained, whereas in time, those that are reprimanded often cease. According to behaviourists, learners achieve communicative competence by forming new habits in the L2 and overcoming the old habits of their native language. The Audiolingual Method considered language simply as a form of behaviour to be learned through the formation of correct speech habits (Thornbury, 1999). The Direct and Audiolingual Methods seem to support coordinate bilingualism. According to Stern (1992), in coordinate bilingualism, a learner acquires their L1 and L2 but in different contexts; the words of the L1 and L2 belong to two separate and independent systems (Stern, 1992).

In the context of the present study, Saudi EFL classrooms, it is challenging to apply teaching methods associated with the virtual position as Saudi students are mostly exposed to English inside classrooms and receive very little, if any exposure, to it outside schools.

Being rigid about exclusively applying the monolingual approach in L2 classrooms is not practical taking into consideration the reality of the classroom and the constraints that teachers face. Therefore, this unresolved issue has become the subject of ongoing debate (this will be discussed extensively in Chapter Three, when empirical studies with regards to the use of L1 in L2 classrooms are reviewed and evaluated).

2.2.2 The maximal position

This position holds that an L2 can be learnt through using the L2 only, but the ideal environment for teaching and learning does not exist which means that the L2 is used only as much as possible in the L2 classroom. L1 use is also permitted, but with no pedagogical value (Macaro, 2001). According to this position, the educational role of L1 use in the L2 classroom is ignored and a feeling of guilt is associated with the use of L1 as it is used for non-pedagogical purposes (Macaro, 2009). According to Macaro (2009: 38), there is no theoretical underpinning for the maximal position as "there is

no theory that predicts that if the second language is used 75% in one set of circumstances but 85% in other circumstances it will lead to similar levels of acquisition”. Macaro further adds that

“a maximum use theory would have to include 100% teacher second language use, but there would be no way of testing such a theory. Put differently, if a teacher was able to maintain 100% second language use though sheer willpower and exuberant personality, how would they know that their learners could not have learnt better through, say, 5% first language use?” (Macaro, 2009: 38).

2.2.2.1 Viewpoints of researchers about L1 use as a last resort

Some researchers and practitioners support the idea of only using L1 as a last resort when other strategies have failed to convey the intended message. For instance, Halliwell and Jones (1991) maintained that it is possible to use the L2 as a natural means of communication in L2 classrooms as the success of learning the L2 depends on the motivation of students to take risks to speak in, and understand, the L2. They added that students are not required to understand everything they hear, as long as they can receive the message conveyed to them, as there are other strategies that help students understand, such as body language, mime, gestures and facial expression. However, Halliwell and Jones (1991) argue that teachers can use L1, but only as the last resort when teaching difficult words or explaining instructions for homework; in such instances, teachers would not plan to use L1 initially. Therefore, when the “learners’ competence has progressed to a level where the foreign language itself can be understood clearly, there will be no need to use the mother-tongue for this purpose” (Wilkins, 1974: 82).

Some researchers who support the use of L1 as a last resort perceive the use of L1 in L2 classrooms as the easy option. For instance, Duff and Polio (1990) suggested that teachers should decrease the use of translation in order to provide the opportunity for students to produce comprehensible output and the L2 should only be used to make input more comprehensible by the use of verbal modification (e.g. repetition) and non-verbal modification (e.g. pictures). Macdonald (1993) assumed that use of translation by teachers may lead students to stop listening and reduce their effort in the classroom

because they find that their teachers' use of L1 is the easy option by relying on their teachers' L1 use.

Crichton (2009) investigated teachers' target language use in modern language classrooms in five Scottish secondary schools and how students responded to the teachers' L2 talk. She believed that one effective way to help students to learn a particular language was to use the target language extensively in the classroom. In her study, she found that teachers used the L2 extensively as they believed that students' constant exposure to that L2 would help them to communicate naturally in the L2 in the classroom. This may indicate that Crichton seemed to be in favour of extensive use of the L2 as she regarded the teachers as being "examples of best practice when teaching modern languages due to the value-added outcome of the pupils' increasing proficiency in pronunciation and understanding of the spoken language" (2009: 24). In addition, Crichton believed that teachers' constant adjustment of the L2 to the pupil's level of comprehension ensured that they "do not feel overwhelmed by the TL and so are more likely to stay engaged" (2009: 32). However, the findings of her study showed that some teachers translated and rephrased L2 words that the students were unable to understand. Although teachers encouraged L2 use as much as possible, some permitted students to reply in their L1, whereas other teachers seemed to encourage the students to reply using the L2. However, Crichton (2009) did not demonstrate that using L1 was harmful or lacked benefit when learning a language. Although this may indicate that she supported the notion of maximising the L2, she did not suggest total exclusion of L1 in the classroom. Even though she considered that 'real' language classroom interaction should be through the L2, according to her, "there is no logical necessity that communicative tasks should avoid learners' first language" (Crichton, 2010: 33). In addition, she clarified that L1 use in modern language classrooms might be helpful for learners in order to facilitate their understanding when introducing new vocabulary or explaining grammar. However, she further argued that permitting the use of L1 "may lead to teachers' overuse [of it], particularly beginning teachers who may lack the experience upon which to base decisions about optimum [L1] usage" Crichton (2010: 33).

2.2.2.2 Teaching methods that support L1 use as a last resort

Teaching methods that support L1 use as a last resort include Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the Task Based Learning (TBL) Method. In the 1980s, CLT was the primary teaching method adopted in response to the failure of the Audiolingual Method (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). CLT relies on communicative competence rather than grammatical and linguistic competence and learners are expected to use the L2 productively in different contexts (Brown, 2000). The central theoretical concept of CLT is “communicative competence,” a term introduced into discussions of language use and second or foreign language learning in the early 1970s (Hymes, 1971; Jakobovits, 1970; Savignon, 1972). When adopting CLT, students work in small groups using authentic materials in communicative activities (Intarapanich, 2013). Brown (2000: 266) identified some characteristics of CLT that include:

- “- The focus of the classroom is on all components of communicative competence, not only the grammatical or linguistic competence.
- Students should use the L2 receptively and productively where rehearsal is not preferred in the communicative classrooms.
- There are some language techniques that help learners to be engaged in the functional and authentic uses of the language in order to fulfil meaningful purposes of language use.”

CLT insists that the use of L1 in L2 classrooms should be minimised. However, Richards and Rodgers (2001) suggested that CLT permits the use of translation when students need it. Furthermore, when CLT is employed to teach a language, communication is central in order to improve the fluency of learners focusing on meaning rather than accuracy (Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

The Task Based Learning (TBL) Method is another method that decreases or minimises the role of L1 when teaching an L2 (Cook, 2008). This method depends on completing tasks in the L2 through using pair or group work, and learners are allowed to use some techniques (e.g. gestures) to be able to communicate through the L2 (Prabhu, 1987). When TBL is used, the task is the fundamental element in teaching

the L2 (Richards and Rodgers, 2001) and learners are not prohibited from using L1 in the L2 classroom. Rather, they are encouraged to attempt to use the L2 while the L1 is used as a last resort (e.g. when explaining complex procedural instructions) (Prabhu, 1987). The emphasis of this method is on functions and purposes of language use (Ellis, 2009) with more focus on teaching to be learner-centered (Swan, 2005). According to the TBL, the role of the teacher is crucial because they act as a facilitator of classroom activities rather than restricting their role to be the source of the new language (Swan, 2005).

As discussed earlier, some teaching methodologies discourage L1 use in L2 classrooms such as the Direct Method that suggests that using the L2 should be maximised as far as possible in L2 classrooms (Polio and Duff, 1994). Nevertheless, this may indicate that it is important to emphasise that L2 use is beneficial rather than focusing on the negative effect of L1 use.

I believe that the maximal position, unlike the virtual and optimal positions, does not involve a principled choice (to use or not to use L1), but rather it involves teachers going against their belief that L1 should be avoided or that they should use it only as a last resort.

2.2.3 The optimal position

This position demands the employment of 'judicious' and 'principled' use of L1. According to Macaro (2009:38), optimal use "is where codeswitching in broadly communicative classrooms can enhance second language acquisition and/ or proficiency better than second language exclusivity". Macaro (2001) noted that the optimal position holds that there are some pedagogical purposes for the use of the L1 in L2 classrooms which add more value to the L1. In addition, Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009) suggested that the optimal use of L1 in L2 classrooms identifies the benefits of learners' L1 as a scaffolding tool and as a strategic organiser as it "helps learners navigate a bilingual identity and thereby learn to function as a bilingual" (Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain, 2009: 183). Macaro (2009:39) clarified that his definition of the optimal use of L1 (mentioned above at the beginning of this section) is only applicable to 'broadly communicative' classrooms where the emphasis is

primarily on communicating meaning by using the L2. This indicates that if the optimal use of L1, according to Macaro (2009), only pertains to communicative classrooms, then the context of the current study cannot be regarded as an ideal setting to employ principled L1 use. It is sometimes difficult to introduce approaches or methods to countries such as the current setting where they have different educational backgrounds to those of the countries where Communicative Language Teaching or other approaches have been introduced and developed.

Macaro (2009) asserted that the convention of the optimal use of L1 in L2 classrooms has not been yet established. The optimal use of L1 is supported by many theorists and language experts. For instance, Sociocultural Theory supports the argument that L1 has a facilitative role as it acts as private speech or an inner voice in the learner's mind which contribute to the way that learners think and act (Macaro, 2009). Hall and Cook (2012) claimed that sociocultural approaches to the use of L1 to learn an L2 posits that cognitive development and language development is driven by social interaction. It sees language as a cognitive tool through which learners mediate mental processes, including noticing, reasoning and planning. According to this theory, psychological processes first emerge in collective behaviour and subsequently become internalised by the learners. According to Vygotsky (1986), Sociocultural Theory requires social interaction, which is important for the individuals to develop their knowledge and cognitive processes. This may indicate that the L1 is useful for learners, as employing it would be a facilitating and cognitive tool in learning the L2 in classrooms that can be considered as a form of learners' 'inner voice' (De Guerrero, 2005).

2.2.3.1 Researchers who support L1 use in L2 classrooms

Several researchers agree that L1 use should be encouraged when teaching an L2. For instance, Stern (1992) claimed that L1 has pedagogical value and argued that employing the L1 supports learning the L2. Furthermore, he argued that translation from the L2 to the L1 is an effective and facilitative teaching technique, and that bilingual experience is generally enriching to the learner. However, Stern (1992) did not base his claims on an empirical study and he did not clarify how did he came to these conclusions. He also did not demonstrate the meaning of effective L1 use. Does

effective mean using L1 for a particular function (e.g pedagogical or affective)? Does effective L1 use depend on the activity types or the students' level of proficiency?

Another researcher who supported L1 use in L2 classrooms is Butzkamm (2003:30) who believed that L1 should be considered as an “ally” in foreign language teaching. He argued that, when the L2 is learned, a learner already has an existing L1 which can be used in the limited time available in L2 classrooms as the L2 learners build upon existing knowledge and skills acquired through the L1. He even considered L1 to be “the master key” when learning an L2; L1 is “the tool which gives us the fastest, surest, most precise, and most complete means of accessing a foreign language” Butzkamm, 2003: 31). However, Butzkamm (2003) also stressed that L1 should be used systematically in L2 classrooms. Restricting students to use the L2 in the EFL classroom may make them feel frustrated and this may eventually lead them to avoid topics about personal interests (ibid). Some students use their L1 as a psychological device that enables them to define complex concepts as it provides them with scaffolded help and assists them establish effective collaborative dialogue when working on meaning-based language tasks (ibid).

In another argument in favour of the teachers' use of L1, Cook (2001) suggested that one benefit of L1 use in L2 classrooms is that a link can be made in students' minds between the L1 and L2, which might assist them to complete learning tasks. He further added that L1 use in EFL classrooms allows learners to be aware of the differences and similarities between linguistic structures, which may assist them to improve their accuracy of translation by finding similarities between linguistic structures and cultures (Cook, 2001).

When used appropriately in a principled way, the use of L1 can be very beneficial. Brown (2000: 68) claimed that “first language can be a facilitating factor and not just an interfering factor”, and Schweers (1999) encouraged teachers to incorporate L1 into lessons to influence the classroom dynamic, and suggested that “starting with the L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learners' lived experiences” (Schweers, 1999: 7).

2.2.3.2 Teaching methods that support L1 use

Teaching methods that support L1 use in L2 classrooms to varied degrees include the Grammar Translation Method, the Bilingual Method and the New Concurrent Method. By no means do I imply that all these methods use L1 optimally when applying Macaro's definition of the optimal position in its strictest sense (discussed above in section 2.2.3).

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) relies on the premise that one can learn modern languages in the same way that Greek and Latin were learned (Macaro, 1997; Cook, 2010). However, because it relies on excessive use of L1 (Cook, 2008), using GTM today, in its original conception, may not be considered optimal.

Furthermore, its focus on translation and explaining grammar rather than focusing on students' fluency in the L2 (Hall and Cook, 2012), is another reason for not considering it an optimal method in L2 learning and teaching. Similarly, Brown (2000) clarified that this method is characterised as a classical method that focuses on grammar rules, memorising vocabulary and translating texts. At the end of the nineteenth century, GTM was the dominant teaching method for modern language teaching in European secondary schools and it continued to be so until the 20th century, although there were several attacks against this method (Cook, 2010). This method has received little public support (Cook, 2001) as one of its weaknesses is that students have little exposure to the L2 and therefore their opportunities to practice and communicate effectively in the L2 are limited (Thornbury, 1999).

The Bilingual Method is another teaching method that advocates the inclusion of L1 use in L2 classrooms. It allows the students to understand L2 meanings through the teachers' use of L1 (Park, 2013). It was introduced by Dodson (1967) and it is considered as an attack against the prohibition of L1 use in the L2 classroom. When using this method to teach the L2, the teacher starts by reading sentences in the L2 many times and provides the meaning in the L1 in order to convey the meaning (Cook, 2001). Students then repeat the sentences, firstly, together and then individually (Dodson, 1967). In order to ensure that students understand the meaning, the teacher repeats the sentences in the L1 and points to an appropriate picture, at the same time asking the students to reply using the L2 (Cook, 2001).

The New Concurrent Method also favours L1 use in L2 classrooms. It requires a balance between the L1 and the L2 (Faltis, 1990) as the teacher codeswitches from the L1 to L2 and vice versa within one sentence rather than codeswitching between sentences (Jacobson, 1990). When the New Concurrent Method is used in L2 teaching, the L1 role appears to enhance L2 learning, as both languages exist in the classroom, instead of pretending there is a monolingual situation where the L2 only is used (Cook, 2001). The L1 role enhances L2 learning as learners can use their L1 as a psychological device that enables them to define complex concepts. According to the New Concurrent Method, L1 use is acknowledged to be an acceptable practice in L2 classrooms in order to assist students to be true users of the L2 (Cook, 2001). Understandably, the use of students' L1 impacts positively on students' learning abilities as teachers use it to clarify issues and assist students to understand complex concepts by way of translating from the L2 to the L1. It would appear that the Grammar Translation Method, the Bilingual Method and the New Concurrent Method support compound bilingualism in which an individual learns the L1 and L2 simultaneously in the classroom without separation (Stern, 1992).

According to Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009), L1 may contribute to learner L2 comprehension, learning and use. Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009) further argued that contrary to the belief supported by the virtual position (e.g. Krashen, 1982), the input can be made more comprehensible by the use of L1 in L2 classrooms. This echoed Macaro (2000) who claimed that too much focus on L2 use, and input modification, may lead to teacher-fronted lessons. This could result in wasted classroom time while the teacher attempts to constantly explain and modify in the L2 only (Lightbown and Spada, 1990). Over the last two decades, using L1 has been considered to be a useful pedagogical strategy to assist L2 learning and comprehension (Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2009), especially when students carry out "cognitively complex" tasks (Swain and Lapkin (2000: 269).

Macaro (2001) called for more experimental studies to be conducted in order to arrive at guidelines that will help teachers, especially the beginner teachers, to use L1 in a principled way. He further argued that L1 is an invaluable strategy if used principally and that the virtual position may be unattainable. Therefore, it is important to recognise

“especially for less experienced teachers, a framework that identifies when reference to the L1 can be a valuable tool and when it is simply used as an easy option. In this way we may work towards a theory of optimality for the use of codeswitching by the teacher.” (Macaro, 2001: 445).

The virtual position is not practical to apply in the context of the present study. In the Saudi EFL context, students are only exposed to English inside the classroom, while little exposure is available for them in their daily lives. Attempting to apply the virtual position is not realistic and would be challenging and impractical. Adopting the position that supports avoiding their L1 at all cost would harm students, especially those with low proficiency in the L2, as they would be left behind as discussed in many studies (Pablo et al., 2011; Carson and Kashihara, 2012; Lo, 2015). As the students and most of the teachers share the same L1, it is more reasonable to adopt the optimal use of L1 where teachers can decide when it is best to use it to convey their message to students and avoid a breakdown in communication.

Empirical studies which have been carried out about L1 use in the language classroom are reviewed extensively in Chapter Three. The following section of this chapter discusses English as a global language and how this may affect attitudes towards different varieties of English.

2.3 English as a global language

Discussion in this section is relevant to research question 3: *What are Saudi university students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background?* This is because learners' preferences for teachers with an L1 background might reflect worldwide attitudes to different varieties or usages of English.

The global spread of English in the 20th century (Davies, 2004), has led to the emergence of localised varieties of the English language. Aiming to personalise the expansion of English and advocate its neutral spread has given rise to the literature regarding ‘world Englishes’, which has focused on and recognised the appropriations of English (Jamshidifard, 2011, p. 34). A growing body of research and arguments on

world Englishes favours English as being the language of a broader range of people other than the formerly considered language of speakers in the BANA countries (British, Australasian and North American) (Jamshidifard, 2011). Much of the opposition has centered on the possible concealed agenda behind English and linguistic imperialism as discussed by Phillipson in 1992 (Jamshidifard, 2011). The usage of English as a global language is an “evidence of linguistic imperialism and dominance” (Phillipson, 1992: 35). According to Bolton (2004: 367), the term ‘world Englishes’ has three possible meanings. Firstly, the expression in the broader sense can function as an “umbrella label” to cover variations of English worldwide and the different approaches employed to describe and examine them. While some scholars prefer to use the term in the singular forms such ‘world English’, ‘global English’ and ‘international English’, others favour adopting the same term but in plural forms (Bolton, 2004). In the last decade, a plethora of terms has been employed by different scholars including: new varieties of English, localised varieties of English, non-native varieties of English, and second language varieties of English (Bolton, 2004).

Secondly, the term world Englishes in the narrower sense was used to refer to the ‘new Englishes’ in East African, West African, and the Caribbean societies and to Asian Englishes such as Indian English (Bolton, 2004). Bolton (2004: 367) associated with a third sense of world Englishes with Kachru and scholars who took a “wide-ranging approach to the study of the English language worldwide”. Kachru’s (1992: 2) justification for adopting the term world Englishes is that it denotes:

“functional and formal variations, divergent sociolinguistic contexts, ranges and varieties of English in creativity, and various types of acculturation in parts of the Western and non-Western world”.

This conception stresses “We-ness and not the dichotomy between us and them” (Kachru, 1992: 2). In 1985 Kachru attempted to model the English spread as a global language. The underlying philosophy of his approach argued for the importance of recognising the “inclusivity” of varieties of the language when approaching the linguistics of English (Bolton, 2004: 367-8). His model signifies “the type of spread,

the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages" (Kachru, 1985: 12). His influential concentric circle model (see figure 1.1). captures the sociolinguistic, historical, and acquisitional aspects and contexts of the diffusion and spread of English (Jamshidifard, 2011).

Three decades ago, Kachru (1982) suggested that the English-speaking community must be perceived in a different framework in which analysing any linguistic activity should take into consideration the particular sociocultural context. He further argued that if English is used in linguistically and culturally pluralistic contexts, "the norm⁴ of the model⁵ should cut across linguistic and cultural boundaries" (Kachru, 1982: 56).

Kachru (1985) explained the spread of English by means of a diagram of three concentric circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle.

⁴ The term norm according to Kachru (1982, p. 48) is used in two senses. The first sense requires "prescriptivism", and the second sense requires adherence to the majority of native speakers' usage.

⁵ Kachru (1982: 48) suggests that the model in the pedagogical literature is used in two senses: firstly, the acceptability sense in which it is commonly accepted by the native speakers of a language. Secondly, the fulfilling sense in which it fulfills "codified prerequisites according to a given "standard" or norm" at various linguistic levels".

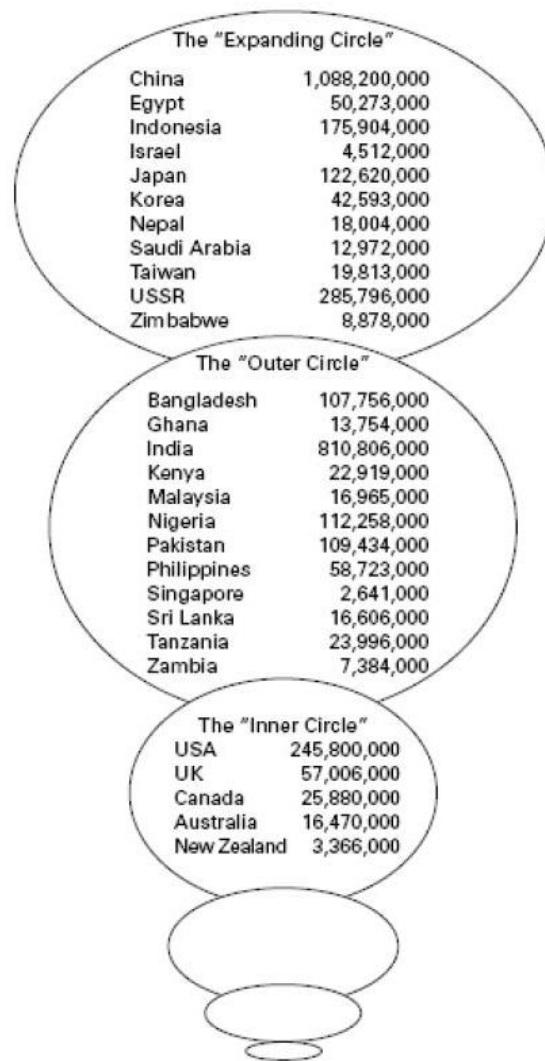


Figure 1.1: World Englishes as classified by Kachru (1992: 359)

Retrieved from

[https://www.google.co.uk/search?q=The+concentric+circle+model+from+Kachru+\(1997\)&client=safari&rls=en&source=lnms&adbm=isch&adsa=X&ved=0ahUKEwiPyeuig5LPahXiJsAKHRz9DpwQ_AUICCgBandbiw=1436&bih=752#imgsrc=ZlWYJlvZ5NRqfM%3A](https://www.google.co.uk/search?q=The+concentric+circle+model+from+Kachru+(1997)&client=safari&rls=en&source=lnms&adbm=isch&adsa=X&ved=0ahUKEwiPyeuig5LPahXiJsAKHRz9DpwQ_AUICCgBandbiw=1436&bih=752#imgsrc=ZlWYJlvZ5NRqfM%3A)

The Inner Circle in this model represents the traditional mother tongue varieties of English where it is the first language or L1. The UK, the USA, Canada, New Zealand and Australia are considered Inner Circle countries. The Outer Circle represents the spread of English in non-native contexts, where the language has become part of countries' main institutions as an additional language or second language. Most of the Outer Circle countries are previous colonies of the USA or UK such as Singapore, Malaysia, India, Kenya, Ghana, and India (Rajadurai, 2005). The Expanding Circle

includes countries where English is learned primarily as a foreign language. These Expanding Circle countries include Greece, Poland, Japan, and China (Crystal, 2003). In terms of Kachru's notion of world Englishes, Islamic countries can be considered a periphery (Expanding Circle) of native speakers of English with the BANA countries representing a core (Jamshidifard, 2011).

Traditionally, the "nativised" varieties of English were not accepted by native speakers, and these local varieties were perceived as "deficient models of language acquisition" (Kachru, 1982: 59). This negative attitude pushed speakers of nativised varieties to question the ecological validity of their local Englishes (Kachru, 1982: 60) and to consider their Englishes as inferior to the language of native speakers of English. This point was highlighted by Kachru (1992: 60) who argued that non-native speakers of English did not consider their localised Englishes equal to Anglo- English:

"The non-native speakers themselves have not been able to accept what may be termed the 'ecological validity' of their nativised or local Englishes. One would have expected such acceptance, given the acculturation and linguistic nativisation of the new varieties. On the other hand, the native models of English (such as RP or General American) are not accepted without reservations. There is thus a case of linguistic schizophrenia . . ."

This quote suggests that the identities of the nativised English are threatened because their varieties are not being valued and, indeed, are considered as not good enough. In addition, the native models of English are perceived better than theirs, and this pervading perception implied that it is difficult for these localised varieties to achieve recognition. This attitude also prevails among L2 teachers. Auerbach (1993) emphasised that the notion of power was embedded in classroom practices. She appeared to agree with Phillipson (1992) that "linguistic imperialism" reflected power relations in the colonial setting. He strongly argued that imposing monolingualist ideology denies learners their right to maintain their indigenous language and local culture. Phillipson (1996: 166) argued that this ideology might lead to students' alienation from their societies and cause, according to Davies (2004: 440), an "inferiority complex" among L2 speakers, who might feel that they will never attain

“proper command over the incoming language”.

Kachru’s three circles have been criticised by many scholars. For instance, Schmitz (2014) asserts that there are many countries in the world where English may be considered as an L1, an L2 or a FL which indicates that Kachru’s model is not applicable to every country. Another criticism was expressed by Bruthiaux (2003) who stated that Kachru’s three circles is not a model that could be used for other languages in the world such as Spanish or French. Bruthiaux (2003) also added that this model appeared to be unable to explain the different dialects of English and their variations. Furthermore, the three circles do not take into account the level of proficiency of speakers (Bruthiaux, 2003) as it seems to be challenging for this model to clearly define the speakers with regards to their English proficiency (Jenkins, 2003).

Xiaoqiong and Xianxing (2011) advised that English language teachers who belong to the Expanding and Outer Circles should be aware of the importance of the different varieties of English and their own varieties as well. In addition, knowing about World Englishes is crucial to reflect these varieties. Therefore, it should be integrated into English courses in order to raise students’ awareness so that they do not assume that the British and the American English or only standard varieties are the ideal and so they are not prejudiced against other varieties of English (Xiaoqiong and Xianxing, 2011).

2.4 The native / non-native speaker definition

Discussion about who is the native speaker is essential here because it is linked to research question 3: *What are Saudi university students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background?*

The native English speaker and non-native English speaker concepts have not been easy to define, partly because there are many varieties of the language itself (Clark and Paran, 2007). Due to immigration, even in conventionally monolingual inner circle countries (Kachru, 1985), such as the UK, there are increasing numbers of bi- and multilingual persons (Clark and Paran, 2007). In Davies’ (1991, 2003) view, there are six criteria for defining a native speaker:

- 1 Native speakers acquire their L1 in childhood;
- 2 Native speakers have intuitions about their idiolectal⁶ grammar;
- 3 They have intuitions about the distinction between their idiolectal grammar and Standard Language grammar;
- 4 They exhibit pragmatic control and have unique competence to create fluent unplanned discourse; in both comprehension and production, the native speakers show a broad range of communicative competence;
- 5 Native speakers have distinctive competence to write creatively regarding all levels of literature (e.g. novels, jokes);
- 6 Native speakers have a unique capability to translate into their L1.

Applying the six criteria to L2 learners, Davies (2004: 435-8) questioned the extent to which an L2 learner can become an L2 native speaker. He believed that childhood acquisition is an essential criterion for language learning. The L2 learner might be able to develop intuitions about the idiolectal and standard grammar of the L2 with adequate exposure and practice in the L2, but, unlike L1 development, L2 learners need to be exposed to “many formal learning situations” of L2 to aid the emergence of L2 idiolectal grammar and standard grammar. Davies further argued that in practice it is difficult, though not impossible, for a non-native speaker to attain control of the discourse and pragmatics of native speakers. Concerning creative performance, Davies (2004: 436) alleged that it is possible for an L2 learner, with practice, to become an “accepted creative artist” in the L2 and he provided examples of NNS creative writers such as Narayan, Conrad, Senghor, and Beckett.

L2 learners might not exhibit the same ability of native speakers when it comes to translation. Again it is difficult, but not impossible, for L2 learners in their post-pubertal age to become a native speaker of the L2 (Davies, 2004).

⁶ An idiolect is person’s distinctive use of a language, which includes grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Heck (2006: 61) referred to an idiolect as “a single individual, in the sense that one’s idiolect reflects one’s own linguistic capabilities and, in that sense, is fully determined by facts about one- self”. Dittmar (1996: 111) defined idiolect as: “the language of the individual, which because of the acquired habits and the stylistic features of the personality differs from that of other individuals and in different life phases”.

2.5 Language learning strategies (LLSs)

L1 use as a language learning strategy (discussed in section 2.5.2.3) is one of the core reasons for discussing language learning strategies (LLSs) in this chapter. More in depth details about that are provided below followed by some definitions of LLSs.

2.5.1 Definitions of LLSs

It is essential to consider LLSs in this chapter for various reasons. In particular, they underpin how students deal with input received from teachers, especially at the cognitive level, in order to identify the mental processes that happen at that time. Therefore, understanding what is meant by LLSs make it possible to answer research questions 4. *How do students respond to their teachers' use of Arabic?* and 5. *How do students respond to their teachers' use of English?* appropriately, as they explored students' cognitive responses to their teachers' use of L1 and identified learning strategies they use when teachers do not use Arabic (discussed in Chapter Six). Investigation of the students' strategic responses to teachers' L2 talk sheds light on the complex operations that constitute the language learning process (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007).

Exploring language learning strategies can assist researchers and language experts to recognise why some learners are less successful than others. As Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) argued, this may happen even though learners of the L2 or foreign language are exposed to the same teaching methods within the same learning context. Lee (2010) suggested that EFL/ESL learners can develop their learning autonomy and successfully learn an L2 by understanding language learning strategies. Applying that to the context of the present study, learners should be trained how to use their L1 as a successful learning strategy. For instance, teachers can raise students' awareness, specially students with low proficiency in English, that their L1 can be used as a cognitive strategy to compare components of the L2 (e.g. grammar and vocabulary) with components of their L1 in order to recognise the similarities and differences between them (Alhaisoni, 2012).

Researchers within the field of second and foreign language education have used varied definitions for LLSs. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 1), LLSs are defined as "the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information". Cohen (1998: 4) refers to LLSs as "those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information". This definition suggests that LLSs refer to processes that are consciously utilised by learners to aid using or learning the L2. Another definition is provided by Macaro (2014: 1) who emphasised that an LLS is mainly a mental process: "the goal-oriented mental actions of learners in relation to a specific language task".

The above definitions highlight the characteristics and processes of language learning strategies. The first characteristic is that these strategies are produced by language learners to facilitate language learning and help develop language comprehension and retention. Secondly, these strategies are either observed (behaviours) or unobserved (thoughts, mental actions). Although observable strategies used by learners can be seen or observed, they are first processed in the mind, or, as Cohen (1998) suggested, they are 'consciously selected' by learners. Each individual learner uses different strategies depending on different factors, such as the material learned, level of proficiency, age, motivation and cultural differences. Although, different authors have referred to LLSs using different terminologies including language strategies, learner strategies, language learning strategies and learning strategies, there is the general agreement that they are synonymous (Lessard-Clouston, 1997).

Therefore, according to my own interpretation with relevance to the present study, LLSs can be related to learners' behaviours in that they are observable (such as asking the teacher for clarification) or related to mental processes such that they are non-observable (such as finding an L1 equivalent in a student's mind). Students use such strategies as a response in order to process the input they receive from teachers whether this input is purely in the L2 or mixed in with the L1. However, students do not necessarily always use LLSs only in response to the teachers' input. As the focus of

this study is on students' responses to teachers' input (Arabic and English), the response can be one possible interpretation of students' use of LLSs. It is important to highlight the fact that even some observable strategies (e.g. using a dictionary) go through a mental process first before they can be recognised. A detailed discussion of the classifications of LLSs is presented below in section 2.5.2.

2.5.2 Classifications of LLSs

Researchers use different classifications of LLSs. Some LLSs are observed or visible, as when using particular techniques (Lessard-Clouston, 1997) such as asking for clarification when learners do not understand something in the lesson (Wenden and Rubin, 1987). Other strategies are unseen or cannot be observed, as in mental processes and thoughts (Lessard-Clouston, 1997; Oxford, 1990; Wenden and Rubin, 1987) such as when learners compare or infer (Wenden and Rubin, 1987). For the purposes of this present study (see research questions 4 and 5), cognitive strategies and social strategies are discussed below. The term "learning strategies" "implies a broad general approach that includes affective and motor techniques as well as cognitive strategies" (O'Neil and Spielberger, 1979: xi).

2.5.2.1 Cognitive strategies

This section focuses on cognitive strategies students may employ in their language learning. Cognition "refers to the mental process or faculty of knowing, including aspects such as awareness, perception, reasoning, and certain kinds of judgements" (Oxford, 2011: 46). Cognitive strategies, for their part, are responsible for the actual language process in the brain (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007). They are "mental steps or operations that learners use to process both linguistic and sociolinguistic content" (Wenden 1991:19), and include mental activities such as monitoring, guessing and categorising (Rubin, 1975). Learners use them to put together, consolidate and transform their knowledge of language and culture (Oxford, 2011), with the target language being employed in the process (Oxford, 1990). Students respond to their teachers' talk both cognitively and behaviourally. Chamot and Kupper (1989) further extended the meaning of cognitive strategies to include both mental and physical strategies as they argued that cognitive strategies require "interacting with the material

to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically” (Chamot and Kupper, 1989: 16).

Oxford (1990: 44) identified categories of language learning strategies that require mental processing, and these are reproduced below.

- Practicing (repeating, practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognising and using formulae and patterns, recombining).
- Preparing themselves to speak by quickly saying the words under their breath or undertaking a quick rehearsal in their head.
- Receiving and sending messages (getting ideas quickly, using resources).
- Analysing and reasoning (analysing expressions and analysing contrastively across languages, translating, transferring).
- Creating structure for input and output (note taking, summarising, highlighting).

However, as mentioned above, Chamot and Kupper (1989: 16) argued that learned material is processed both mentally and physically. Accordingly, they identified the following LLSs, most of which also fall into Oxford’s categories.

1. Repetition: Repeating an element of language (a word or phrase) in the course of performing a language task (Oxford: Practising)
2. Resourcing: Using available reference sources of information about the target language, including dictionaries and textbooks. (Oxford: Receiving and sending messages)
3. Grouping: Ordering, classifying, or labelling material used in a language task. (Oxford: Creating structure for input and output)
4. Note-taking: Writing down key words and concepts. (Oxford: Creating structure for input and output)
5. Deduction/Induction: Consciously applying learned or self-developed rules to produce or understand the target language. (Oxford: Receiving and sending messages, Practising)

6. Substitution: Selecting alternative approaches or different words or phrases to accomplish a language task. (Oxford: Receiving and sending messages)
7. Elaboration: Relating new information to prior knowledge; relating different parts of new information to each other. (Oxford: Analysing, Practising)

For the purpose of the present study, the term ‘cognitive strategies’ is used to include the processes that happen in a student’s mind that cannot be observed as well as those physical or behavioural strategies that can be observed. This is because even observable strategies go through a mental process before they can be identified.

2.5.2.2 Social strategies

One of Oxford’s classification of LLSs is social strategies that support language learning without direct involvement of the L2 (Oxford, 1990). Social strategies involve interacting with other people, such as asking for clarification or repeating. Therefore, these LLSs can assist to increase interaction and create compassionate understanding, as people are involved when social strategies are used (Canale, 1983). For instance, social strategies require students to interact with their teacher or other students in order to solve a problem related to the material learned (Chamot and Kupper, 1989). Another example of social strategies is to ask the teacher to paraphrase, repeat or slow down (Alhaisoni, 2012). Oxford (1990: 14) suggested a number of social strategies, including asking questions, cooperating with others and empathising with others. Oxford’s list indicates that social strategies involve learning with others (Lee, 2010) in the same way as O’Malley et al. (1985) suggested that social strategies involve cooperation and working with one or more in order to obtain “feed-back, pool information, or model a language activity” (O’Malley et al., 1985: 34).

2.5.2.3 The use of the L1 as a learner strategy

As discussed earlier in section 2.5.2, a considerable number of researchers have categorised LLSs using different classifications (Dörnyei, 1995; Oxford, 2011; O’Malley et al., 1985; O’Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Rubin, 1981) and they all classified the learners’ use of their L1 as one of the language learning strategies. It is important to highlight that the use of the L1 as a

learner strategy can be considered as both cognitive (unobservable) and a behavioural (observable) strategy. This will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Six when analysing data and presenting the findings related to research question 5 that examines language learning strategies that students use when their teachers do not use Arabic.

For instance, Dörnyei (1995) used literal translation as one of his categorisation of LLSs when he mentioned that under what he called "compensatory strategies", literal translation is sometimes used to compensate for missing knowledge. According to Dörnyei (1995: 58), literal translation means to translate "literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure from L1 to L2". However, it is not only one-way translation but rather, it could be a two-way translation and Chamot and Kupper (1989: 16) stated that translation is "rendering ideas from one language to another in a relatively verbatim manner". It should be made clear that in the current study, the term translation as an LLS is considered overt or observable, for example, when students use a dictionary. On the other hand, it is considered a covert or cognitive strategy, for example, when students render ideas from one language to another mentally. In that vein, as discussed earlier, one of the cognitive strategies is the use of L1 as a basis for understanding or production in the L2 (O'Malley et al., 1985; Oxford, 1990). Other researchers (Kern, 1994; Campbell, 1997) have attempted to explore how L1 is used as a LLS and the benefits of doing so.

Kern (1994) investigated LLSs used in reading tasks and his focus was on the use of mental translation as a cognitive strategy using think aloud interview. 51 intermediate-level students with different reading abilities (low, intermediate, high) participated in his study while reading French texts. His findings suggested that teachers and language learners both acknowledge that relying on learners' L1 as a mental translation is possibly unavoidable, especially in the case of learning the L2 at the initial stages. In addition, he proposed that mental translation should not be avoided at all costs but rather it could be a desirable habit that helps to develop the process of comprehending the L2. Kern (1994) identified some disadvantages of using translation (L1 and L2) connections which were:

- Thinking in the L1 when doing a reading task is disadvantageous because L2 lexical items may be misunderstood when the connection to L1 equivalent is not correct.
- Word by word translation may not help meaning integration.

On the other hand, he added some advantages of using L1 as a learning strategy:

- L1 helps with the storage of meaning and allows reinforcement of the meaning.
- L1 helps to group lexical items of the L2 into semantic clusters which decrease memory constraints.

Other advantages were added by Campbell (1997), who suggested that teachers should encourage their students to use their L1 as a learning strategy by comparing and contrasting L1 and L2, as such use will help, rather than hinder, L2 learning.

2.5.3 Cultural differences

One reason for discussing the research studies that have already been carried out on cultural differences is that cultural difference is a variable that affects the use of learning strategies by learners in L2 classes. For instance, evidence was given by Oxford (1996) who found that learners in Western countries accept using clarification strategies, such as interrupting the teacher asking for clarification, more than learners from Eastern countries. However, studies by Aljuaid (2010) and Alhaisoni (2012) within the Saudi context found that these strategies (asking for help or clarification) are frequently used by Saudi learners. As LLSs used by students have been explored in this study, the findings (discussed in Chapter Six) will establish whether or not learners in ELI use these strategies.

Similarly, Gu (2012) highlighted the importance of cultural tradition in influencing the way learners use learning strategies. Gu refers to the learning context as the social, political, cultural and educational environment where the learning process takes place and includes teachers and students' peers, the curriculum, family support and cultural tradition. This indicates that a learning strategy might be acceptable in a particular

context but not in another (Gu, 2012; Lee, 2010; Oxford, 1996), depending on the social context or the learning environment (Gu, 2012). In the current context, being taught by teachers from different backgrounds and with different L1s may motivate learners to use different strategies, despite the similarity in the setting. Therefore, an optimum strategy may differ according to the nationality of the teachers and their native language. The effectiveness of LLSs is determined by various factors; learner motivation and attitudes towards learning, the type of the learning task itself, whether easy, difficult or complex and the learning environment including cultural differences (Gu, 2012).

About four decades ago, Chamot (1987) noted that investigating LLSs was a new venture in the field of second language learning. Gu (2012) made the same observation noting that research studies investigating LLSs were not sufficient. Recently, Macaro (2014:1) acknowledged the insufficiency of research regarding “learners’ strategic responses to their teachers’ talk in L2”.

Research studies, which have been conducted to explore LLSs, focus the investigation on such strategies solely (Wenden and Rubin, 1987; O’Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Cohen, 1998; Aljuaid, 2010; Alhaisoni, 2012). However, the present study examined such strategies, particularly in relation to teachers’ use of Arabic in Saudi EFL university level classrooms, and how students responded to it. Therefore, the present study may help to fill the existing gap. More importantly, the present study provides a methodological contribution regarding the use of stimulated recall methodology (qualitative) to identify strategies used by learners, whereas previous research on LLSs has employed questionnaires (quantitative).

With regards to empirical studies carried out investigating LLSs within the Saudi context, it appears that few have been conducted (Aljuaid, 2010; Alhaisoni, 2012) and those that have been carried out considered LLS in isolation, unlike the present study. For instance, Aljuaid (2010) explored the pattern and the frequency of LLSs used by 111 Saudi female university students whose major was English. The findings of Aljuaid’s study showed that students used LLSs with high to medium frequency and

the most frequently used LLSs were metacognitive strategies whereas the least frequently used were memory strategies.

In addition, a recent study carried out in a Saudi university by Alhaisoni (2012) examined the relationship between LLSs used by male and female EFL students with regard to gender and proficiency level. The results revealed that the students used language learning strategies with low to medium frequency due to the fact that Saudi students in Alhaisoni's study within this particular EFL context did not use English for daily life. Interestingly, none of the studies that have been carried out within the Saudi context indicated L1 use as a learning strategy by Saudi EFL learners.

2.6 The role of affective factors in L2 classrooms

It is widely acknowledged that affective factors play a significant role when learning an L2 (Du, 2009). It is important to highlight the importance of affective factors in L2 learning because, to ensure that learners accomplish competence in the L2, the affective barrier should be low. It is essential to discuss affective factors in this chapter because it provides an understanding with regards to answering research question 3b: *What are students' affective responses to their teachers' use of Arabic?* Therefore, a brief discussion is provided below in order to understand the relevance of affective factors to L2 classrooms.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis was first proposed by Dulay and Burt (1977) who explained the influence of affective factors in learning a foreign language. Later, Krashen (1982) developed this hypothesis and categorised these factors as follows: motivation, self-confidence, attitudes and anxiety. Krashen (1985) believed that affective factors are essential in order for L2 acquisition to take place. Affective filter should be low in order to allow input to be comprehensible so that learning an L2 can be achieved (Gass and Selinker, 2008). The role of affective filter is crucial in L2 learning because learners with low anxiety, high self-confidence and high motivation are able to obtain more comprehensible input whereas learners with high anxiety, little self-confidence and low motivation obtain little input due to having high filter (Du, 2009). In addition, possessing positive attitudes is important to keep learners' affective filter

low. For instance, holding positive attitudes towards the L2 is important in order to motivate students to learn. It is important to take into account how students perceive the L2 because positive attitudes have a distinctive effect on the process of L2 acquisition (Cook, 1993). Similarly, Du (2009) claimed that learners with positive attitudes can more easily learn an L2 and progress rapidly compared with those learners who hold negative attitudes and who progress slowly in language learning.

Moreover, Brown (1994) suggested that self-confidence is at the heart of learning, as it “is the condition that a person believes in his or her own ability to accomplish the task” (Brown, 1994: 23). In addition, high levels of anxiety might hinder language learning, while low levels could help (Gass and Selinker, 2008). This suggests that anxiety at low levels sometimes motivates learners to expand their knowledge and learn more, especially when studying and aspiring to achieve high grades. However, foreign language anxiety could be experienced as a facilitative or a positive force when learning a language (Alpert and Haber, 1960; Scovel, 1978; Bailey, 1983; Young, 1986). This usually happens when learners are capable of dealing with the debilitating anxiety and change it to positively motivate them to improve their performance. Anxiety could also be facilitative when it “motivates the learner to “fight” the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behavior [whereas anxiety could be] debilitating ... [when it] motivates the learner to “flee” the new learning task; it stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behavior” (Scovel, 1978: 139).

Based on empirical evidence, foreign language anxiety was sometimes found to be a positive force in language classrooms. For instance, a quantitative research study was carried out by Chastain (1975) at university level in language classes including French, Spanish and German. One of the findings showed that there is a positive relationship between students’ anxiety and students’ scores in German and Spanish classes. Another study was conducted in the USA by Mills et al. (2006) in undergraduate French language classrooms and it was found that there is a positive relationship between students’ listening anxiety and their listening proficiency in French classes.

Furthermore, Lei (2007) highlighted the importance of responding to students' affective needs such as foreign language anxiety as they are as crucial as linguistic needs. He argued that EFL professionals should be aware of the positive impact of satisfying learners' affective needs as they enhance the students' ability to become more proficient at language learning and to utilise their anxiety positively.

Several advantages of using L1 in EFL classrooms have been highlighted in various research studies relating it to affective variables. For instance, L1 use helps to create a more relaxing learning environment within L2 classrooms (Burden, 2000) which lowers students' foreign language anxiety (Auerbach, 1993). In addition, Meyer (2008) found the primary role of using students' L1 within the EFL context is in lowering affective filter. According to Meyer, a classroom can become intimidating to learners regardless of the language or subject being studied. Meyer argued that it takes time for learners to get accustomed to new faces, educational approaches and classroom procedures. Exclusive use of L2 in the classroom can compound this problem and create anxiety and confusion. If this anxiety is not controlled, it may increase to great levels. This view is also supported by Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008) who indicated that learners held that L1 use may help alleviate L2 classroom anxiety. Such anxiety may raise affective filter.

In a similar vein, Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) found, in a Malaysian context at university level, that students' perceptions about psychological support brought to the English (L2) classroom by teachers' L1 use were positive as the more teachers used their L1, the stronger was the affective state of students. 68.1 % of students were more comfortable when teachers used their L1 whereas 64.6% felt less tense. Another 52% of the students said that teachers' L1 use helped them to feel less lost during English classes and therefore they became more encouraged to learn. In another context where English was the L1, Levine (2003) used online questionnaires to identify students' attitudes at university level towards L1 use in L2 (French, German, Spanish) classrooms. One of his findings showed a strong connection between anxiety and teachers' L2 use as students were more anxious when the amount of L2 was increased in the classroom.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter discussed how the virtual position regarding the use of L1 in L2 classrooms was predominant in the past, which resulted in a negative attitude towards L1 use in the L2 classrooms. This negative attitude stemmed from the work of the interactionists, the perception of the native speaker as being superior, and the view of the language as belonging to separate systems “coordinate bilingualism”. These views were reflected in teaching methodologies and approaches to language teaching and learning which sometimes ignored L1 merits. These negative views were also reflected in language classrooms and made teachers feel either guilty or that L1 use was a sign of incompetence. The proponents of the virtual position seemed to ignore the notion that L1 use in L2 classrooms can be advantageous to lower affective filter as shown in various research studies (Auerbach, 1993; Burden, 2000; Meyer, 2008; Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney, 2008; Ahmad and Jusoff, 2009). The use of L1 is also classified as a learner strategy that may help learners comprehend the L2. In recent years, there have been calls to consider L1 as a useful tool to support learning the L2. Researchers emphasise that in order not to harm language learning, L1 should be used systematically, judiciously and in a principled way.

The expansion of English worldwide has created localised varieties of English that should be recognised as being different but not inferior. The speakers of such varieties have viewed themselves as speakers of imperfect models of English because these varieties are not being valued. It is suggested that such varieties of English should not be viewed as inferior but just different from the inner circle varieties.

The next chapter evaluates the empirical research studies with regards to L1 use in L2 classrooms

CHAPTER THREE

EMPIRICAL STUDIES ABOUT L1 USE IN L2 CLASSROOMS

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Two discussed the theoretical background of the present study. This chapter presents the empirical studies which have been carried out in respect of teachers' use of L1 in L2 classrooms. Discussion of these studies is divided according to their thematic contexts. Empirical studies carried out in different contexts with regards to the use of L1 in the L2 classroom are reviewed and evaluated in this chapter. The discussion here presents research conducted to investigate L1 use in L2 classrooms in relation to the research questions of this present study and is divided according to certain themes, listed below, that reflect the research questions of the study. The key themes are:

1. Research on the quantity of teachers' L1 use in L2 classrooms (RQ 1).
2. Research on functions of teachers' L1 use in L2 classrooms (RQ 1).
3. Research on teachers' L1 use and students' level of proficiency (RQ 2).
4. Research on native English speaker teachers (NESTs) and non-native speaker teachers (NNESTs) in L2 classrooms. (preferences, advantages and disadvantages are important here). (RQ 3).
5. Research on students' reactions to teachers' use of L1. (RQ 4).

For convenience, and in order to show the relevance between the themes and the research questions, the questions are repeated below:

1. Does the way that Arabic is used by teachers in university-level EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia at the ELI vary according to teachers' L1?
2. Does the extent of teachers' usage of Arabic vary according to their students' level of proficiency?
3. What are Saudi university students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background?
4. How do students respond to their teachers' use of Arabic?

3.2 Research on teachers' use of L1 in L2 classrooms in the non-Arabic context

Using students' L1 as a facilitator in the L2 classroom has been examined by a considerable number of researchers (e.g., Butzkamm, 1998; Schweers, 1999; Burden, 2001; Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2001; Miles, 2004; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Kavaliauskienė, 2009; Liu, 2010) who argue that teachers' use of learners' L1 when teaching foreign languages is a facilitator that can improve L2 learning and teaching. In addition, L1 use provides learners with a sense of security (Butzkamm, 1998) and allows them to express themselves (Cook, 2001). It also facilitates classroom management (Duff and Polio, 1990) and linguistic development in learners (Liu, 2010), as well as providing a short-cut for giving instructions and explanations (Kavaliauskienė, 2009). Furthermore, L1 use builds up interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge in students' minds (Moore, 2002), underpins learning tasks through collaborative dialogue with fellow students (Macaro, 1995), and develops L2 skills such as code-switching for later real-life use (Moghadam *et al.*, 2012). Schweers (1999) takes the teachers' view that L1 should be integrated into L2 classes to improve classroom dynamics.

In this section, the literature surrounding teachers' use of L1 in L2 classrooms is addressed principally according to the pertinent themes or particular issues. Studies particular to the Arabic context are addressed in a shorter review section later in the chapter but this section is also divided up by key themes. Cognitively and neurolinguistically, all other things being equal, there is no need to treat the Arabic and non-Arabic context differently from the point of view of the minds of the L2 learners. However, since this thesis is intended specifically to address language learning questions and gaps in knowledge in the specific context of Arabic-English classrooms in Saudi Arabia, it is appropriate to review the literature on this context separately and in slightly more depth.

3.2.1 Research on the amount of teachers' L1 use in L2 classrooms.

Several attempts have been made to explore the quantity of L1 used by teachers. The methods of measuring the quantity of L1 varies, with some studies counting the number of words, others the number of utterances/instances and some the time spent on each language. This, in itself, makes it difficult to compare the results.

Some studies quantified teachers' L1 use by time intervals. For example, Duff and Polio (1990) in a German university FL class that counted the words in both languages (English was the L1) every 15 seconds by using a digital watch. They found that L1 use ranged from 0% to 90% of the time with an average of 27.8%. Macaro (2001) also used time intervals to quantify the L1 used by six teachers across four state schools in southern England where English was the L1 and French was the L2. He investigated 14 foreign language lessons, and used an audio-recorded bleep that played every 5 seconds as he counted words in both languages. The use of French (L2) ranged between 65% and 86% but a low percentage of L1 use was found ranging between 0 and 15.2%.

Word count was another method to quantify teachers' L1 use in the L2 classrooms. In a study carried out in South Korea, Liu et al. (2004) identified the use of L1 by 13 EFL teachers reporting an average of 32% L2 use by calculating the number of words spoken in the L1 as a proportion of the total number of words used in both languages. They felt that this was a more accurate way of measuring the amount compared to measuring the time spent, as a teacher could spend more time using a language than actual words. Despite this criticism, at university-level in FL classes in Australia, Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) observed how experienced teachers used the LI in five first-year French courses, quantifying such use by counting words in each language. They found that the amount of teachers' L1 use ranged from 0 – 18.15%.

In a Japanese context at secondary school level, Hobbs et al. (2010) found a higher percentage of L1 used by NNESTs (around 70% to 75% of the class time) compared to the amount of L1 used by NESTs (20% of class time). Here the lessons were transcribed by two researchers, one writing down the Japanese and the other the English words to quantify the amount of L1 spoken. Due to the fact that different ways were employed to quantify the amount of teachers' L1 use in L2 classrooms as in the above studies, interpreting these results should be done with caution (Baeshin, 2016).

3.2.1.1 Principled L1 use

As can be seen from the above studies, the average amount of L1 use varies across studies whether calculated in words or time spent. Neither does there seem to be much

agreement on how much L1 is too much (Macaro, 2005). Macaro (2005) argued that principled use of L1 can be achieved by using mainly the L2 and the switches to the L1 should either facilitate interaction or improve L2 learning or both. Furthermore, he suggested a limit of 10-15% teacher usage of L1 in L2 classrooms as the aim of principled L1 use. He felt that higher levels of L1 use than this might adversely impact L2 learning. A slightly lower percentage was proposed by Atkinson (1987), for whom an appropriate and beneficial ratio for L1 use in L2 classrooms was about 5% to 95% respectively. These suggested ratios give some room for flexibility of L1 use in the L2 classroom, especially for teachers who teach students in the early stages. According to Edstrom (2006), teacher use of L1 is only acceptable when it is used judiciously or in a principled manner with the objective of maximising L2 in the classroom, and may vary depending on what was happening in the class at that time.

3.2.2 Research on the functions of teachers' L1 use in L2 classrooms

There is a debate among language teachers and experts about the use of L1 in EFL classrooms with regards to the wide range of its functions and factors (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; Sali, 2014; Pei-shi, 2012; Liu, 2010; Ferguson, 2009; de la Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Liu et al., 2004; Cook, 2001; Harbord, 1992; Franklin, 1990; Kharm and Hajjaj, 1989). Factors include the linguistic background of students as well as their proficiency in the L2 (Al Sharaei, 2012). Teachers' L1 use in L2 classrooms serves various functions, as was initially suggested above.

3.2.2.1 Functional categories of teachers' L1 use

Several research studies have attempted to classify the functions of teachers' L1 use and each study has identified different classifications. It is important to note that it is quite challenging to identify the function of each teachers' use of L1 because it is difficult to find a definite reason for each use. This means that categorising each teachers' use of L1 into a discrete category is problematic as they are a continuum and could overlap with each use of L1 able to serve more than one function. In order to justify the overlapping in the functions of teachers' L1 use, Ferguson (2009: 131) explains that:

“...switches are very often multifunctional, the implication being that it is therefore difficult to allocate a discrete determinate meaning to

every switch. An issue here also, given the luxuriance of functions identified, is the absence of any agreed taxonomy of pedagogic functions, one reason being that, given the almost unlimited local meanings generated by code juxtaposition in discourse, any such taxonomy would be open-ended.”

L1 use is attested to serve various functions and, as such, should be encouraged and supported in particular situations. Of course, what it means to use L1 in an L2 classroom varies – it can be something as simple as allowing bilingual dictionaries to play a role in teaching and learning (Moore, 2002).

L1 use serves functions such as facilitating classroom management (Raschka, Sercombe and Chi-Ling, 2009; Liu, 2010), grammar explanation (Duff and Polio, 1990; Burden, 2001; Raschka, Sercombe and Chi-Ling, 2009; Liu, 2010), and socialisation and building relationships with others (Macaro, 1995; Raschka, Sercombe and Chi-Ling, 2009; Liu, 2010; Moghadam et al., 2012). Thus, the consequences of L1 use in the L2 classroom are not always directly linguistic but impacts on factors that each shape the development of students’ L2 proficiency. Although all these studies investigated the functions of teachers’ L1 use, they used different instruments to identify these functions in different contexts.

Sali (2014) examined the functions of teachers’ use of L1 in three Turkish EFL classrooms at secondary school level using observations and interviews. The findings showed three main functions of L1 used by teachers: academic (pedagogical) purposes to communicate the academic content, managerial purposes to regulate classroom proceedings and interactions efficiently, and, finally, cultural or social purposes and to construct rapport.

By using observations, questionnaires and interviews for students and teachers in a Taiwanese context, Pei-shi (2012) identified the functions of teachers’ L1 use identified by students as explaining complex grammar rules and complex concepts, and defining new vocabulary. The students indicated using L1 in class helped them understand complex concepts and reduce anxiety. In addition, the teachers found it necessary to use L1 in classrooms as they claimed that L1 is effective in certain

courses, in particular in courses that require them to define and explain complex concepts, a theme that is emerging throughout the literature reviewed in this chapter. This study identified that increased usage of L1 in these EFL classrooms had a positive impact; it facilitated L2 learning. L1 usage in the EFL classroom can facilitate linguistic development in learners because teachers can use the L1 to explain L2 complex concepts (Schweers, 1999; Moore, 2002; Scott and Fuente, 2008; Kavaliauskienė, 2009). Other purposes include explanation of difficult words (Kafes, 2011; Pei-shi, 2012), discussion about examinations (Burden, 2001; Yao, 2011) and checking comprehension (Burden, 2001; Liu et al, 2004; Liu, 2010).

Students benefit from having a dual or bilingual repertoire which fosters their cognitive flexibility. Moghadam, Samad and Shahraki (2012), using observations and students' reflective journals, also found that teachers used L1 to clarify issues and help students understand complex concepts by way of translating from the L2. This was seen to have a positive effect on the learning process. Another study that looked at the function of translation was carried out by Raeiszadeh et al. (2012) who demonstrated that translation is a critical means of ensuring students' comprehension and showed that EFL learners use their L1 to understand and translate the L2. The EFL learners believed that they learned all their language skills through translation. In a similar vein, L1 usage in L2 classrooms can take the role played by bilingual dictionaries when teachers respond to their students in the L1 (Butzkamm, 1998). Bilingualism contributes positively to the linguistic, psychological and cognitive development of students (Moore, 2002).

Ahmad and Jusoff (2009), in a Malaysian context, investigated the perceptions of learners with regard to their teachers' L1 and its functions. By using questionnaires, they found that teachers' L1 use was perceived as a positive strategy by low proficiency English learners. In addition, there was a significant relationship between teachers' L1 use, learners' effective support and the learners' learning process (ibid). Various functions of teachers' L1 use were identified by the students, such as checking comprehension, explaining difficult concepts, explaining the meaning of new words, classroom management and explaining grammatical aspects as well as providing

instructions on how to tests were administered. Students also confirmed that L1 was used by teachers to establish contact with the learners.

Supporting other researchers' findings on the positive functions of the use of L1 in the L2 learning environment, Cook (2001: 418) claimed that L1 can be employed in the classroom systematically by following these suggestions:

- to provide a short-cut for giving instructions and explanations where the time cost of the L2 is too great
- to build up interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge in the students' minds
- to carry out learning tasks through collaborative dialogue with fellow students
- to develop L2 activities such as code-switching for later real-life use.

3.3 Research on L1 teachers' usage and students' level of proficiency

A considerable number of research studies have found that the students' level of proficiency in the L2 plays a crucial role in leading teachers to use L1 when teaching an L2. For instance, in a Chinese context at university level in EFL classrooms, Liu (2010) found that one of the most influencing factors that made teachers use L1 was students' level of proficiency in English.

In addition, Carson and Kashiwara (2012) carried out a study in a Japanese context investigating the relationship between students' need for L1 in the classroom and their level of proficiency in the L2 (English). They found that beginner students were more in favour of L1 support than advanced students. Around 80% of beginner students in that study said they preferred that their instructors know and use Japanese, and preferred to use Japanese in class. A similar result was suggested by Pablo et al. (2011) who found that teachers think that the frequency of their use of L1 varied according to the students' level of proficiency, as at beginning levels there was more need of L1 (Spanish) in the classroom while at higher levels less use of the L1 was necessary.

In an EFL context at school level in Hong Kong, Lo (2015) also asserted that teachers' use of L1 when teaching L2 varied depending on the learners' level of proficiency. Indeed, teachers used significantly more L1 when dealing with students who were less

proficient in the L2 than when dealing with students who were more proficient. For the less proficient learners, L1 was used to develop learners' metalinguistic awareness, to interact with students and to explain the academic content. On the other hand, for the more proficient students, L1 was mainly used to explain complex concepts by translation of the L2 subject-specific vocabulary into the L1. This seems to be in line with Butzkamm's (2003: 36) viewpoint that "with growing proficiency in the foreign language, the use of the mother tongue becomes largely redundant and the FL will stand on its own two feet". This reflects the view reached by other studies mentioned in this section. There appears to a connection between (perceived) levels of proficiency, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, the need, or the desire, for more or less support in the L1. There have been similar studies, which similarly indicate that students show a preference for use of L1 by their teachers in different EFL contexts, especially learners with a low level of proficiency (Schweers, 1999; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Ahmad and Jusoff, 2009; Yao, 2011).

However, findings from other studies in a different context support a different view. For instance, a study undertaken by Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz (2011) in an Iranian context at school level revealed that both high-proficient and low-proficient students did not want their L1 to be used in the classroom as they supported L2 domination in English classes even though they were different in their level of proficiency. Similarly and in another Iranian context, Nazary's (2008) study revealed that students with varying levels of proficiency (elementary, intermediate and advanced) at university level were reluctant to use their L1 in the EFL context as they preferred to be exposed to the L2 only. This indicates that students in these particular Iranian contexts believe that L2 should be prioritised in EFL classrooms.

This suggests that it is still an open question as to whether teachers' preference to use L1 in the L2 classroom depends on their students' level of proficiency. While this is not the exact topic under investigation, it remains to be investigated how teachers and students assess proficiency, and at what point teachers decide to intervene in the L1, or at what point students feel that they need L1 support. Thus, again, the matter is complex and further research on this subject may therefore be required.

It can be seen from the previous studies that there have been various attempts to quantify the L1, assign different labels for similar functions, and provide reasons for the students' and/or the teachers' use of L1 in the classroom. However, lack of agreement on the principled functions and amount of L1 seems to prevail across those studies. It is noticeable that L1 is mostly used by teachers for pedagogical purposes to explain grammar and difficult vocabulary or concepts, especially when teaching low proficiency students, to increase comprehension. Teachers, regardless of the context, appear to recognise that L1 can be used as an affective tool to reduce tension and to make the classroom environment more bearable and convivial. These studies provide evidence that L1 can facilitate immediate interaction between the teachers and the students. However, more interventionist research is needed to provide evidence on the benefit or disbenefit of L1 use in the long term (Ferguson, 2009; Lin, 2013; Tian and Macaro, 2012), and consequently provide more solid guidelines about what type of L1 switches, whether by teachers or students, could be considered systematic or principled.

3.4 Research on native English speaker teachers (NESTs) and non-native English speaker teachers (NNESTs) when teaching L2

The previous section has looked at student proficiency and the use of L1. In this section, the discussion proceeds according to thematic strands in the literature concerning NESTs and NNESTs and how they are perceived by their students. Both NESTs and NNESTs facilitate learning in EFL classrooms in different ways and can be beneficial as both have their advantages when it comes to facilitating L2 learning. However, some disadvantages have been identified by students about both types of teachers as explained below.

3.4.1 NESTs vs. NNESTs in the L2 classroom – students' preferences

Chapter Two (see section 2.4), discussed the characteristics of the native speaker. In this section, empirical studies that have been conducted to explore students' preferences for NESTs and NNESTs regarding the advantages and disadvantages of both teacher types are reviewed.

For example, Chun (2014) investigated how students perceive the NESTs and NNESTs (Korean teachers) within a Korean EFL context using questionnaires. The

findings showed that students were not consistent with regards to preferring one type of teacher over the other as they perceived the NESTs and Korean teachers as both having advantages and disadvantages. Chun concluded that both NNESTs and NESTs facilitated learning in L2 classrooms but their effectiveness differed depending on their specific areas of instructional competence and classroom performance and their characteristics at different stages of learning. According to Chun's results, students perceived their Korean teachers to be advantageous as they were able to facilitate L2 learning by assisting students to psychologically adjust when learning English and by being sensitive to students' needs as they shared the same L1, as well as the same experience by being learners of the L2 themselves. On the other hand, NESTs were judged by students as being more effective in their linguistic competence and status as native speakers of the L2 (Chun, 2014). Chun (2014) concluded that it is more beneficial for students to be taught by both types of teacher (Korean and English native).

In the same year, another study was carried out at university level in Vietnam and Japan by Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014) who supported the view that both NESTs and NNESTs facilitate L2 learning in the EFL classroom in different ways. On the one hand, NESTs were seen as facilitating L2 learning by being repositories of cultural knowledge, models of correct language use, and models of pronunciation (ibid). On the other hand, NNESTs were seen by students as being less effective for their learning of the L2 because of the differences in culture between the two (the teacher and the students) (ibid). There seems to be an interplay between linguistic competence of NESTs as a positive factor and cultural difference as a negative one. In Walkinshaw and Oanh's (2014) study, students also believed that NESTs were less effective in explaining grammar compared to NNESTs. Concerning NNESTs, students viewed them as effective in teaching the L2 and held that NNESTs are able to adjust to their L1 if and when the need arose (ibid). For the students, it was easier to interact with NNESTs in the EFL classroom due to their shared culture but some students found it beneficial to learn L2 from both NESTs and NNESTs, depending on the skills being taught and the proficiency of the learners. This, unsurprisingly, suggests that what determines which type of teacher is most suitable depends on the context, and that

includes consideration of factors such as learner's level of proficiency and the skill taught.

In a similar vein, Ma (2012) examined the advantages and disadvantages of NESTs and NNESTs identified by students when teaching English in EFL classrooms in Hong Kong. Ma's findings suggested that the most dominant advantage of NNESTs was their ability to use students' L1 so that they could better understand teachers, especially when it came to explaining grammar or difficult English vocabulary. This suggests that the use of L1 by NNESTs has a role to play when it comes to explicit instruction regarding conceptually complex linguistic matters. Other advantages of NNESTs include easy communication and close relationship between students and teachers as they share certain linguistic and cultural assumptions, and students may feel more of an affinity with instructors due to this (Ma, 2012). Nevertheless, students in the same study perceived being taught by NNESTs to be disadvantageous because of the instructor's own potential inaccuracies in pronunciation and grammar (*ibid*). Regarding the English native instructor, Ma's findings suggest some advantages of NESTs such as good English proficiency, which can facilitate learning and reduce potential pitfalls, including difficulties in understanding, communication and building relationships between teacher and student. However, sometimes, NESTs are able to speak the L1 of the students and use it for purposes of facilitating learning of the L2 in EFL classrooms. This is echoed by the findings of this present study (see Chapter Five for more details).

Walkinshaw and Duong (2012) investigated the perceptions of EFL learners within a Vietnamese context and concluded that most students placed most value on certain qualities, such as teaching experience, friendly personality, understanding students' local culture, and being able to deliver the lesson in an informative and interesting way. They valued these aspects more than being taught by a teacher who is a native speaker of the L2. However, advanced students showed their preference for NESTs because they considered native speaker pronunciation to be the ideal model. Other factors were identified by Macaro and Lee (2013) in a Korean context who found that any preference for NESTs over NNESTs was dependent on learners' age and the level

of proficiency in the L2, and not on their perception of teachers' vocabulary knowledge.

Within an Arabic context, Alseweed (2012) explored male university students' perceptions about NESTs and NNESTs in the EFL classroom in Saudi Arabia, and the findings showed that students favoured NESTs as they moved to higher levels of L2 proficiency. This is understandable as, arguably, the advantages of native teachers of the L2 better apply when L2 accuracy and fluency becomes more important. Some students provided various reasons for preferring the NESTs, such as motivating students to learn about English speakers and their cultures, and providing a relaxed classroom environment where students could interact without any sense of anxiety. According to the students, this motivated them to participate in the L2 and develop their confidence. Students also believed that NESTs were often less meticulous about discipline, and they were sometimes allowed to use their L1. Furthermore, they believed that NESTs usually used varieties of teaching strategies, which they assumed enhanced their L2 learning. Other students, however, provided contradictory responses. Although they believed that NESTs had many advantages, the majority of the students stated that NNESTs were more competent due to their understanding of the students' cultural background, needs, and the language difficulties they encounter. This was due to the fact that the NNESTs went through the same experience of L2 learning as the students. Therefore, NNESTs would use Arabic (L1) to explain certain ambiguous terms that were difficult to comprehend. Students also commented that NNESTs had the ability to control the class and student behaviour. These comments might reveal that the NNESTs' concept of teaching is centred on discipline and monitoring. In addition, the students' comments reveal that NNESTs were more likely to control the class due to the fact they shared the same L1 with students. This shows that some L1 might be necessary to manage the classroom.

More advantages and disadvantages were identified by Benke and Medgyes (2005) who examined how NESTs and NNESTs were viewed by learners of English at secondary and university levels in Hungary. The results concluded that students were in favour of NESTs as they were good when teaching speaking and provided a perfect model. Other students viewed NNESTs to be advantageous because they were good at

teaching grammar, giving clear examination instructions and providing students with the meaning of L2 words in their L1 (Benke and Medgyes, 2005). However, overusing the L1 and providing incorrect pronunciation were disadvantages of NNESTs identified by students in this study.

It could be said that both NESTs and NNESTs have their advantages and disadvantages in facilitating L2 learning. The NESTs were perceived by students in some studies being more effective in their linguistic competence, and provided an ideal model for teaching speaking and pronunciation (e.g. Alseweed, 2012; Walkinshaw and Duong, 2012). The NNESTs, on the other hand, enjoyed an important quality which is sharing the same L1 with students. Thus L1 may be used as a technique to convey the L2 message. Perceiving the NEST as more competent is deeply rooted. The ideology of the superiority of the native speaker is connected to a wider community (e.g. Atkinson, 1987; Hall and Cook, 2012). This negative attitude toward L1 use outside the classroom is reflected inside classrooms (Ferguson, 2003). Regardless of these negative attitudes, research has shown that L1 use is inevitable in the language classroom (e.g. Liu, 2010; Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz, 2011; Raschka et al, 2009).

It seems, then, that there are different reasons why students prefer a NEST or a NNEST. Not all of these factors appear to relate to native status. In this respect, Mart (2013) concluded that L1 remains a natural resource in the L2 learning process irrespective of whether the learner is taught by a non-native speaker or a native speaker. Mart claimed that what is important is using L1 in EFL classes in general regardless of the L1 background of the EFL teacher. Now that some discussion of perceptions about NESTs and NNESTs, and the advantages or disadvantages of both types of teachers, have been undertaken, I move on to discuss students' attitudes towards teachers' L1 use.

3.5 Research on students' reactions or attitudes towards teachers' use of L1

Some of the studies discussed in the previous sections have researched the benefits of using L1 in the classroom. This section concentrates more on identifying students' perceptions and attitudes towards L1 use in the EFL classroom. For instance, research conducted by Schweers (1999), Beressa (2003), Greggio and Gil (2007), Ahmad and Jusoff (2009), Kavaliauskienė (2009) and Yao (2011) showed that use of L1 in L2

classrooms was generally supported by learners. Carson and Kashihara (2012) also found that students thought L1 should be used with lower proficiency students.

Sa'd and Qadermazi (2015) carried out research on the role and use of an L1 in the EFL classroom from the point of view of the Iranian students by using class observations, focus group-type sessions and questionnaires. They concluded that there was a strong tendency in their participants towards using the L1. Interestingly, only a minority of the learners actively favoured a policy of only using English in the classroom whereas the vast majority of learners were more in favour of considered and constrained use of the L1. It was determined that use of the L1, as others have suggested, has positive effects for clarification and giving instruction, and teaching grammatical and lexical items which are more complex. However, based on the students' perceptions, the researchers also identified reasons to avoid using the L1 and these included encouraging speaking and listening improvement, increasing exposure to the L2, and promoting an increase in students merely becoming 'used to' the L2. The findings suggested that there could be a careful and planned role for the use of some L1, and the researchers propose that English-only policies may need some re-examination. Indeed, this study suggests that claiming that L1 should be prohibited completely is too strong, and this conclusion is supported by the other evidence provided above that there are linguistic and non-linguistic reasons for allowing at least some L1 usage by teachers in the L2 classroom.

Another study that shows that students may have a positive attitude towards the use L1 in L2 classrooms is that of Pablo et al. (2011) who investigated the use of L1 in EFL classrooms and sought the views of English and French students and teachers. The majority of teachers and students were positive about the use of L1 in EFL classrooms. They believed it to be part and parcel of the learning and teaching process because it facilitated learning. Pablo et al. suggested that teachers should not be limited to using the L2. However, the researchers did not set out in great detail the reasons why teachers preferred the limited use of L1 in L2 classrooms. This was not the main focus of their study, however.

Many of the studies that have been focussed on so far in this chapter examine the positive aspects of L1 use. However, some studies have also shown that both teachers

and students are often aware of the negative impact of too much L1 use in the L2 classroom (e.g. Pablo et al., 2011; Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz, 2011).

In two important studies, (Pablo et al., 2011; Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz, 2011), it was noted that students and teachers supported the use of L1 in L2 classrooms while at the same time recognising the potentially negative impact on students' L2 proficiency as a result, especially if L1 was overused. Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz found that an excessive use of L1 could demotivate students to learn. There is then a suggestion that some learners favour the use of L1 even though they may be aware that it is detrimental. This begs the question of the motivational and comfort factors that may influence this conflict of interest. Kalanzadeh et al. (2013) also noted that students and teachers preferred the use of L1 in L2 classrooms, but demonstrated that excessive use of the L1 (Persian) could impact on the students' proficiency in the L2 (English). Students and teachers may well recognise the importance of using L1 in L2 classroom whilst being aware of the negative effects of its overuse. Unfortunately, these studies tended to identify the attitudes of teachers' and students' towards reduced usage of L1 in L2 classrooms but did not look at why they held these opinions. An important issue arising from these studies (Pablo et al., 2011; Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz, 2011; Kalanzadeh et al., 2013) is that researchers, students and teachers are unclear about what is regarded as overuse or excessive use. It is important for researchers to define what students and teachers mean by excessive or overuse as used in this context.

Clearly, as is clear from the review of the literature here, there exists a spectrum of views amongst linguists and researchers regarding the use of L1 when teaching L2. This diversity is "based on underlying differences in approach regarding the language classroom environment and the goal of language learning" (Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney, 2008: 250). Thus, despite its inclusion by teachers, the role of L1 in L2 learning is still regarded as problematic, especially in the classroom context (Moore, 2002), and students and teachers hold different views regarding its role, function, and impact on students' proficiency. However, the preference for, or reluctance towards, L1 use cannot, by itself, be used to support the argument for L1 inclusion in L2 classrooms. Preference does not necessarily entail effectiveness. In other words, a preference by students or teachers for the use of L1 in the L2 classroom does not

indicate the effectiveness of L1 in learning or teaching an L2. Claims of effectiveness of the role of L1 in L2 teaching must be investigated, and empirically and experimentally supported, to examine this matter in greater depth.

3.6 Research into the use of L1 in L2 classrooms in the Arabic context

A core reason for discussing the research studies that have already been carried out within Arabic contexts in a separate section is to situate this study amongst them in order to show how it will contribute to the field. Another reason for separating out Arabic from non-Arabic literature is that reviewing such studies helps to identify the gap in the literature. An examination of research undertaken to consider L1 use within the Arabic context in EFL classrooms is discussed below. Empirical studies conducted within the Arabic context in general are first discussed, after which, studies carried out within the Saudi context are debated.

Studies will now be discussed in more detail on the particular matter of L1 use within the Arabic EFL classroom. Findings are organised by country chronologically to allow any common themes for the whole Arabic context to emerge. Then, more specifically, studies carried out within the Saudi context are singled out, as it is clear from the literature reviewed above that certain learners in certain national contexts may have their own reasons for preferring, or not, L1 use and may be affected in different ways depending on the country-specific situation.

First of all, in the Gulf region, Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) found that the majority of Arab students preferred using their L1 (Arabic) in L2 (English) classrooms, particularly when they were not able to express themselves. By employing classroom observation, questionnaires to teachers and students, and teachers' interviews, they concluded that 93% of teachers used Arabic in the L2 classroom. Functions of teachers' use were identified such as translation (71%), grammar explanation (66%) and classroom management (64%). Their findings are echoed by the findings of other recent studies (Raschka, Sercombe and Chi-Ling, 2009; Liu, 2010; Kafes, 2011; Pei-shi, 2012 and Sali 2014) which indicate that L1 use is inevitable in the language classroom, especially when the teachers and students share the same L1. Therefore, the virtual position (Macaro, 2001) does not seem practical in such contexts.

In the Egyptian context, Mohamed (2007) investigated teachers' and students' perceptions about Arabic use with description of teachers' actual use of L1 in Egyptian EFL classrooms. Again, as with the previous study discussed, some of the functions of L1 use were identified, such as managing learning, assisting students' comprehension and communication. Interestingly, teachers' use of Arabic showed high scores of L1 use for non-pedagogical functions such as using L1 with speech markers and linking words, while other teachers used L1 as a last resort. The comparison between teachers' perceptions and their actual use of L1 showed that teachers were not aware of the quantity or the quality of their actual use of Arabic as their attitudes about how they use it did not consistently match their actual use. What is also important is that research is clearly needed to examine why educators may say they are or are not using L1, and what they actually do. It is well evidenced within general pedagogical literature that teachers' perceptions of their performance often do not match with what they actually do. For instance, Phipps and Borg (2009) found that there was tension between teachers' beliefs about ideal teaching and the way they taught in reality.

Another study was carried out in the Omani context when Al-Shidhani (2009) investigated teachers' beliefs and student perceptions of using Arabic in EFL classrooms, how often they used it and for what purposes. His findings suggest that teachers held positive views about the maximum use of English in the EFL classroom because more than 90% agreed that both teachers and students should speak the L2 as much as possible whereas less than 30% believed that students' L1 should be permitted. In this study, most teachers thought that the use of L1 was not in line with the communicative approach to teaching L2. However, some clear purposes for teachers' L1 use were identified, such as the explanation of new ideas, grammatical rules and vocabulary, which is in line with findings from the rest-of-world literature that also echo the optimal approach proposed by Macaro (2001). Nevertheless, one limitation of this study is that it did not provide a deep understanding of the issue because it only used surveys and this yielded very general and broad conclusions. For instance, when teachers were asked about how their students felt when Arabic was used in the English class, no clear answers were provided by teachers. Over 25% of teachers said that students preferred that teachers' use of Arabic should be kept to a

minimum, whereas 21% of teachers said the opposite and that students were in favour of teachers' using Arabic as much as possible (Al-Shidhani, 2009). Therefore, instead of relying on teachers' guesses about students' preferences, Al-Shidhani's study would have benefited from interviews with both teachers and students in order to provide a more detailed discussion of the factors interacting with preference for L1 use in the L2 classroom.

In a Kuwaiti context where English is the medium of instruction in one particular College in Kuwait University, Alenezi (2010) carried out research that explored students' views on Arabic use in science classes where English is the language of learning and teaching. He examined the effects of students' attitudes on their academic performance. In contrast to studies discussed in the previous paragraphs, the results indicated that students strongly preferred Arabic to be used in such classes as they perceived Arabic use as a tool that strengthened their comprehension of the science subject although they showed their appreciation of monolingual teaching to improve their linguistic competence in English. With regards to the effect of Arabic use on students' academic performance, the students agreed that instructors' Arabic use in teaching at that college positively impacted on the academic performance of students and therefore on their chances to pass course examinations. However, it should be noted that it was academic performance with regard to science that appeared to improve and the overall effect on students' general linguistic competence is not clear. Although the context of Alenezi's study is not considered an EFL context, it is still relevant and worthy of discussion here because its findings are similar to the findings of other studies which were conducted in an EFL context.

Later, in a Jordanian context, Hussein (2013) conducted a study aimed at identifying the attitudes and actual reasons for Arabic use in ESL classrooms in compulsory English courses at private and local Jordanian universities. By using observations and questionnaires to collect data, the findings suggested that both teachers and students used Arabic in the English classes systematically and purposefully for explanation of new or difficult words and syntactic rules, asking difficult questions and giving instructions. According to the participants in this study (teachers and students), Arabic

plays a facilitative role in teaching and learning an L2 which appears to be in agreement with Macaro's (2001) optimal position.

Another study investigating student attitudes was carried out in Yemen by Bhooth et al. (2014) who explored student perceptions about Arabic use in EFL reading classrooms at university level. Again the study identified functions which were similar to those highlighted by Hussein (2013). According to the results of this study, students believed that Arabic use has several functions and purposes such as concept definition, translating new words and providing explanation. This study concluded that students could use their L1 as a scaffolding tool in order to facilitate learning the L2, whereas teachers might use it as a pedagogical tool in order to enhance students' experiences of learning the L2. In addition to facilitation and managerial roles, it seems, as was seen in the rest-of-world literature, that there is some support for the notion that L1 use is necessary where students need to discuss complex ideas about difficult aspects of the L2.

Similar functions were identified in a very recent study which was carried out in Kuwait by Alrabiah et al. (2016). They examined how teachers used L1 (Arabic) in EFL classrooms at college level. The aims of the study were to describe the reasons why teachers used L1, and to look at affective, sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic factors that underpinned the choice to use L1. Data was collected through a grounded theory method survey based on information collected from interview data. The findings suggest that teachers use L1 as a teaching tool to manage the classroom environment, as others have suggested. Participating educators also highlighted that consideration of affective factors, sociolinguistic elements, and psycholinguistic matters inform how they use L1 in their L2 teaching. In Alrabiah et al.'s study, the L1 had dual functions in the L2 classroom: the first function of L1 use was as a teaching tool while the second function was classroom management. Six functions were identified where the L1 was employed for classroom management. However, the frequencies of these functions were varied. The participating teachers mostly agreed that they employed L1 as a teaching tool, such as for explaining the meanings of difficult L2 words, comparing the grammatical rules of the L2 to familiar ones in the L1, and using L1 to explain new

reading passages. As a tool for classroom management, the teachers agreed that they used L1 for giving instructions during test administration, maintaining discipline in class, and recording students' attendance. These findings are largely in line with what other researchers in the wider Arabic context, and also internationally, have found about L1 use in the L2 classroom.

Within another Egyptian context, a study carried out by Waer (2012) attempted to identify the relationship between using L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English) in different L2 classroom contexts occurring within a single lesson within the overall interactional organisation of L2 classroom discourse. Waer employed both conversational analysis and a corpus linguistics approach, which helped to provide a deeper understanding of discourse in L2 classrooms. The functions of L1 used by both teachers and students were identified and the findings suggested that L1 use plays a facilitative role in L2 classroom interactions. Again, it is shown that L1 is believed to have its advantages, although these often lean towards how classes are conducted and managed. I now turn to findings on the matter specific to the Saudi context, the target of the present study.

3.6.1 L1 use in the L2 classroom – the Saudi Context

As this present study took place in Saudi Arabia where there are certain cultural differences at play, it is appropriate to devote a section to the country itself. However, limited research studies have been conducted within the Saudi context at school level (Al-Abdan, 1993; Al-Nofaie, 2010) or at university level (Alshammari, 2011; Mahmoud, 2012; Khresheh, 2012; Machaal, 2012; Al Asmari, 2014; Baeshin, 2016). Almost all of the studies which have been carried out in Arabic contexts have explored teachers' and students' attitudes and perceptions relating to L1 use in L2 classroom (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989; Al-Abdan, 1993; Al-Shidhani, 2009; Al-Nofaie, 2010; Alenezi, 2010; Alshammari, 2011; Bhooth et al., 2014), rather than considering in depth the actual practices and cognitive responses of students in the classroom when they do not understand the L2 input. The fact that actual practices and responses in the classroom have not been addressed is a gap this present study hopes to fill. It is important that what is practised in class with regard to the use of L1 in L2 classrooms is considered in research. In this section, the studies carried out within the Saudi context with regards to L1 use in EFL classrooms are ordered chronologically.

The first published research in Saudi Arabia with regards to the use of L1 in EFL classrooms was conducted by Al-Abdan (1993) who investigated the use of Arabic in Saudi classrooms in intermediate schools. His quantitative study surveyed 451 male and female teachers and supervisors, and the findings revealed that 55.4% of the teachers claimed to use Arabic for 10% of class time. In addition, 87.6% of the teachers in Al-Abdan's (1993) study said that used Arabic in order to clarify abstract words while 54.5% of them used it to explain grammatical rules. Nevertheless, one limitation of this study is that it solely used questionnaires so actual practices regarding teachers' use of Arabic and its functions were not fully explored or clearly identified to understand what happened in the actual classroom. Therefore, this study's results would have been more meaningful if classroom observations and interviews had been considered, The current study has employed both these methods in order to gather some of the richer data that these previous studies have failed to consider.

Many of the studies discussed in this section have shown a positive attitude towards teacher use of L1 in the classroom. Again, at school level, Al-Nofaie (2010) investigated teachers' and students' attitudes towards using Arabic in EFL classrooms. This study specifically examined the teaching of English in Saudi Arabian intermediate female schools and how teachers and students perceived using Arabic in EFL classrooms. Al-Nofaie concluded that both teachers and students have positive attitudes towards this issue. Teachers tended to use Arabic with beginners and particularly for certain functions such as giving examination instructions, translating new vocabulary and explaining grammar. Although teachers were flexible in using Arabic in some situations, they were strict as they did not permit their students to ask questions in Arabic. With regards to students' attitudes towards the use of Arabic in this study, the findings revealed that most were in favour of its use as it provided comfort, although they believed that Arabic use should be minimised and only used in specific situations.

Alshammari (2011) investigated the use of Arabic in English classes and explored the aims, as well as the attitudes of teachers and students, concerning the role of Arabic in EFL classrooms at Saudi technical colleges by employing questionnaires. His results

revealed that Arabic was used solely for clarification purposes, such as explaining difficult concepts and providing translation. As with the previous study (Al-Nofaie, 2010), both teachers and students held a positive attitude towards the judicious use of Arabic in English classrooms. Alshammari argued that L1 use is an effective strategy which can improve L2 learning, and is also necessary for developing students' comprehension. However, as in Al-Abdan's (1993) study, the sole use of questionnaires might not have provided a complete picture of the issue, and Alshammari's (2011) findings would have been more comprehensive if he had carried out classroom observations and interviews.

Mahmoud (2012) examined the effect of Arabic use when teaching English on the achievement of foundation year students who studied general English at a university in Jeddah. Results showed that it is preferable to prohibit Arabic use in EFL classrooms because a significant difference in the mean scores of both control and experimental groups suggested that using English only in the classroom positively influenced students' achievement in English. In comparison with the previous study discussed (Alshammari, 2011) the results here showed that use of L1 in L2 classes led to low achievement in students, which is interesting when it is considered that the literature suggests that students generally appreciate some L1 support at this foundation stage. Furthermore, most teachers and students think that if L1 is used, it should be used earlier rather than later. The major shortcoming of this study was that students' opinions regarding the use of Arabic in English classrooms were not considered. It has been shown that some students feel L1 use boosts confidence and provides support, and so a wider consideration of the balance of benefits against disadvantages is needed. It is hoped that this present study will go some way to addressing such inadequacies by identifying what students think. While at this stage I do not wish to give a concrete opinion on the matter, Mahmoud may well be correct in suggesting teacher training in the issue of L1 use in L2 classrooms should be on offer. At least, then, educators could make informed decisions about specific reasons to favour or avoid use of L1. Recent workshops held in EL1 were effective in raising awareness of the potential benefits of some principled use of L1 in the classroom (Baeshin, 2016).

Unlike the previously reviewed studies conducted within the Saudi context that mainly used questionnaires, Khresheh (2012) examined when Arabic is used and for what purposes in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia using observations and interviews. Data analysis suggested that teachers used Arabic in certain instances regardless of the teaching method employed. For example, Khresheh noted that, sometimes, teachers used Arabic to avoid making grammatical mistakes in English as they were ashamed to make such mistakes in front of learners. It is important to note, then, that teacher behaviours may not always be motivated by conscious consideration of what is best for the student. Khresheh further observed that teachers tended to resort to using Arabic translation or forms when explaining complex words while learners also used Arabic when they wanted to express difficult constructions in English, especially those at beginner and intermediate levels. However, some students who were advanced believed that some Arabic concepts (e.g. Islamic) should be used as they are beyond translation and, if translated, may lose their religious or cultural value.

In another study concerning the attitudes towards L1 use, Machaal (2012) explored the attitudes of teachers and students towards Arabic use in EFL Saudi classrooms. His findings indicated that the majority of participants supported the use of L1 in EFL classrooms and that Arabic use with low proficiency students was useful to enhance learning and comprehension. He observed that teachers mainly used L1 to mediate the learning and teaching process. In addition, he found that teachers with limited teaching experience and whose L1 was Arabic did not prefer Arabic use in their EFL classrooms, whereas teachers who were either Arabic native or non-Arabic native speakers but had considerable teaching experience were in favour of principled Arabic use. Nevertheless, although Machaal did not clarify what teachers meant by the principled use of Arabic, he recommended that optimal and appropriate use of Arabic should be supported by the policy of the preparatory year programme for teaching English, especially with low proficiency students, as the current policy does not work for those students who do not understand what is happening in the EFL classroom.

Another study in the Saudi context was carried out by Al-Asmari (2014) who investigated male and female teachers' viewpoints and awareness of using Arabic in the Saudi EFL classroom at university level using questionnaires in order to assess the

significance of Arabic use amongst teachers. Al-Asmari concluded that EFL teachers have positive perceptions of L1 use in EFL classrooms. EFL teachers in the Saudi universities investigated also believed that learning or teaching an L2 is easier if the teaching is not limited to the use of the L2. Again, the theme of ease - for both teachers and students - arises, as has been mentioned elsewhere in this chapter. Although Al-Asmari (2014) identified some functions with regards to the use of Arabic in the Saudi EFL classrooms at university level, he did not seek to establish whether learners achieve as much when learning is not limited to the use of L2. It is possible that the teachers did not take into account other research findings, which suggest that the use of L1 in L2 classrooms may impact negatively on students' proficiency in the L2.

A very recent study conducted by Baeshin (2016) and was done within the ELI (exactly the same context of the present study) investigated the effect of workshops on seven in-service teachers' beliefs and practices about the use of L1 at an English language institute in a Saudi university. Data was collected using a survey, interviews, and classroom observations, conducted before and after the workshops. The findings revealed that before the workshops, all teachers had conflicting feelings regarding L1 use; they believed that L1 is essential to compensate for students' lack of proficiency in L2, especially with lower level students. They considered it an undesirable practice but at the same time inevitable. After attending the workshops, four continued to feel guilty about not exposing students to enough L2. Baeshin noted that the percentage of the teachers' L1 use had fallen in the post-workshop observations. Attending the workshops prompted the teachers to reflect on how they may switch to the L1 in the classroom in a principled way. All seven teachers reported that their beliefs had mainly originated from their L2 teaching experience. The data analysis indicates that teachers' stated beliefs did not always correspond with their practices. Baeshin concluded that "teachers' beliefs and practices are highly individual, and are coloured by a combination of factors related to their background, education, experience, and personality" (2016: 355). Furthermore, her study highlighted that beliefs are deeply rooted and raising teachers' awareness may assist them to reflect on those beliefs, thereby modifying their practices. However, her study failed to show how teachers' beliefs might affect students' learning. In addition, students' beliefs were not considered and therefore, she did not show the extent to which teachers' beliefs

matched those of their students.

Functions of L1 use in the global context were similar to those reported in the studies conducted in the Arabic context, including Saudi Arabia, in that teachers mainly used L1 for pedagogical purposes to explain grammar and difficult concepts. This shows that regardless of the context, the teachers' and students' L1s, and the teachers' and students' cultural backgrounds, L1 is used as a tool to facilitate classroom interaction. Some of the studies showed that teachers' perceptions of their L1 use did not always match their classroom practices (e.g. Mohamed, 2007; Baeshin, 2016). Therefore, more research, including stimulated recall interviews, is needed to draw teachers' attention to the tension between their beliefs and actual practice, and how their use of L1 affects students' L2 learning and linguistic competence.

3.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have reviewed literature from the rest-of-world context (including pertinent general references from Arabic-English studies), and studies specific to Arabic as well as to the even narrower Saudi context which concern issues and advantages of how L1 is used in the L2 classroom. Perceptions of students and teachers have played a key role in this review, and, interestingly, it has been found that the perceptions of authorities in the EFL classroom may not actually match the empirical evidence of what is best for L2 proficiency which, ultimately, should be a key consideration for educators and students alike. Moreover, an interesting theme that has emerged is that teachers and students in many contexts really favour the concept of L1 use even if they are aware that, to some degree, this could impact on proficiency. Thus the question of a conflict between convenience and attainment is raised. What is clear is that more research is needed. Teachers and students are often asked for their perceptions or feelings about L1 use. However, these researchers do not always address how such perceptions and practices actually play out. Closing this gap is a key intention of mine in writing this thesis. The next chapter presents the methodology used in this study, with details about the process followed when conducting this research.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines how the data in this study was gathered and analysed in order to answer the research questions. The chapter first explains the aim of the study followed by the research questions. Theoretical assumptions from epistemological and ontological perspectives are then discussed. After that, the research approach, the sample and the participants involved are presented. Then, the data collection methods are explained and supported with the rationale for the choice of these particular tools. Research ethics are considered as they are crucial considerations in any piece of research and the process of how ethics were applied in this project are discussed. Finally, the way that data was analysed is illustrated and explained in detail.

4.2 Aim of the study

The main aim of the present study was to explore students' cognitive and affective responses to L1 and L2 used by teachers from different L1 backgrounds as well as to identify students' preferences for their EFL teachers' L1 background in the Saudi EFL classroom at the ELI. Examining students' responses is the main interest of this study but exploring their preferences is a secondary interest. This was achieved by employing interviews (illustrated in section 4.7.2). In addition, classroom observation (discussed in section 4.7.1) was used to identify the extent of Arabic used by teachers from different L1 backgrounds in the ELI and to explore the functions of such use. Comparisons were made between teachers with regards to their use of Arabic and for what purposes they used it. The data from the classroom observations served as a background to the study that enabled me to examine the responses of the students. The use of open-ended questionnaires given to teachers (explained in section 4.7.3) helped to establish the extent to which teachers' views on their Arabic use coincided with those of the students by comparing and contrasting the teachers' questionnaire answers with students' views obtained through interview. The research questions that the present study addresses are listed in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Research questions and methods used

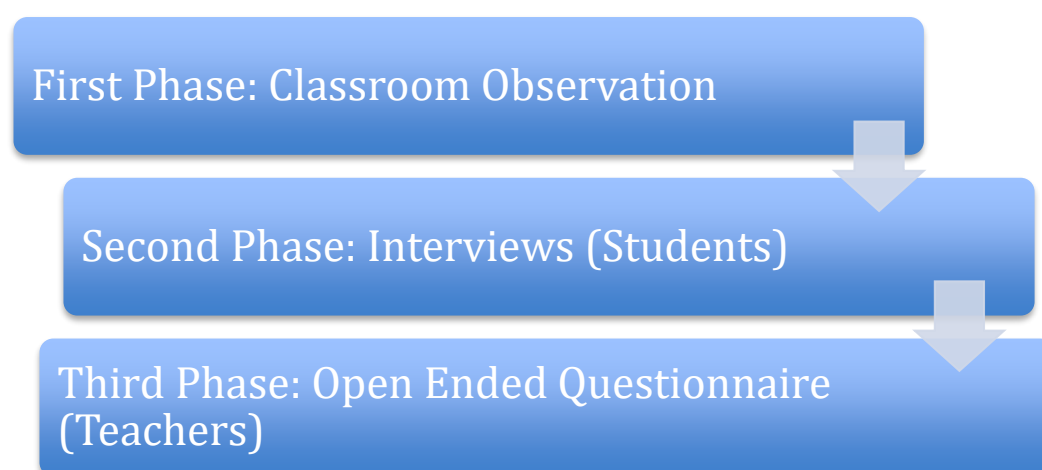
	Research questions	Methods used
Background questions	<p>1. Does the way that Arabic is used by teachers in university- level EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia at the ELI vary according to teachers' L1?</p> <p>a) To what extent and how is Arabic used by Arabic native speaker teachers?</p> <p>b) To what extent and how is Arabic used by English native speaker teachers?</p> <p>c) To what extent and how is Arabic used by non-English/ non-Arabic teachers?</p> <p>2. Does the extent of teachers' usage of Arabic vary according to their students' level of proficiency?</p>	Semi-structured observations
Main questions	<p>3. What are Saudi university students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background?</p> <p>4. How do students respond to their teachers' use of Arabic?</p> <p>a) What are students' cognitive responses to their teachers' use of Arabic?</p> <p>b) What are students' affective responses to their teachers' use of Arabic?</p> <p>c) Do these responses differ according to students' level of proficiency?</p> <p>5. How do students respond to their teachers' use of English?</p> <p>a) What are students' cognitive responses to their teachers' use of English?</p> <p>b) What are students' behavioural responses to their teachers' use of English?</p>	Semi-structured interviews (stimulated recall)
Follow-up	<p>6. To what extent do the teachers' views on their Arabic use coincide with students' views of it?</p>	Open-ended questionnaires

Here, I justify the background research questions set out above as there are a number of reasons why I have chosen these, and there is a clear rationale for how they link to the over-arching research questions of the study at hand. The over-arching research questions (examined in Chapter Six) are aimed:

- 1) to identify students' preferences regarding their EFL teacher's background; and
- 2) to examine how students respond to teachers' use of Arabic and English in their L2 classroom.

In order to understand the students' responses, I had to first develop a deep understanding of what they are responding to, namely the extent to which, and the conditions under which, teachers employ Arabic in the L2 classroom. For this reason, I examined in detail when, why, and to what extent Arabic was employed by the EFL teachers. These findings could also be compared with expectations and predictions raised by the literature review to see what can be learned in particular about the Saudi EFL context with respect to the use of L1 in the L2 learning environment. It is important to note that the present study involved three phases (see figure 4.1). The first phase included ten classroom observations in order to establish the background of the study followed by the second phase, which included 30 student interviews. In the third and the final phase, seven teachers were asked to complete online open-ended questionnaires.

Figure 4.1 The three phases of the study



4.3 Research paradigm

Understanding the philosophy of research in relation to methodology is important as research philosophy determines which specific research methods should be used (Newby, 2014). Research philosophy, which is informed by both ontological and epistemological perspectives, affects how research is conducted. Ontology is concerned with "the very nature or essence of the social phenomena being investigated" (Cohen et al., 2011:5) and the nature of one's beliefs about reality (Richards, 2003). Epistemology is the study of the nature of knowledge and how it is acquired (Thomas, 2013) and the relationship between knower, "researcher", and known, "the researched" (Richards, 2003). Thus, researchers should have a particular philosophical assumption in mind before they select a particular research methodology. In other words, ontology enquires into the nature of reality whereas epistemology enquires about the means used to look for nature of reality.

This study adopts Constructivism as the research paradigm. A paradigm is a worldview that refers to a "set of generalizations, beliefs, and values of a community of specialists" (Creswell and Clark, 2011: 39). Richards (2003) argued that constructivists believe that knowledge is created rather than discovered, which means in practice that research findings are created not discovered and this is achieved through interactions between the researcher and what is being researched (Pring, 2015). In other words, "the social world exists merely in the eye of the beholder, since individuals are free to make their own attributions" (Barbour, 2014: 35). Furthermore, any social phenomenon is not only produced through social interaction but is in a state of constant revision (Bryman, 2012). In addition, the constructivist researcher focuses on a specific context in which people live or work to be able to understand the cultural setting of the participants (Creswell, 2013). This echoes Richards (2003) who suggested that the constructivist researcher does not aim to understand the essence of real world but seeks to understand the richness of a world that is socially determined. Moreover, when selecting constructivism as a research paradigm, data is gathered by going to where the participants stay and social relationships are built between the researchers and their participants (Bryman, 2008). The present study followed the

constructivist paradigm that is reflected by the use of a qualitative approach (Davies, 2005).

This study employed observations, stimulated recall and open-ended questionnaires as data collection tools to identify the extent and purposes of teachers' L1 use, students' strategic and affective reactions to such use and teachers' awareness of their students' views. These choices were made because the concept of epistemology guides researchers in how to approach different phenomena and therefore to identify the appropriate methods with which to explore them. This study adopts the ontology that reality is subjective and socially constructed, and relies on participants' perceptions of reality (Creswell, 2003). I, as a qualitative researcher, believe that the researcher cannot be detached from the context he/she is investigating, and understanding of social reality stems from the participants' construct of it (Esterberg, 2001). This study did not aim to test a pre-existing theory but rather mainly relied on qualitative data to explore and understand participants' views.

4.4 Research approach

Many methodologists (e.g. Bryman, 2008; Punch, 2009; Brown, 2014) distinguish between the qualitative and quantitative approaches. The stance of researchers on ontological and epistemological assumptions has implications on their choice between two approaches: qualitative and the quantitative. Qualitative research deeply explains and analyses a particular phenomenon rather than generalising to a larger population (Oxford, 2011). It may also “develop its own categories while the research is ongoing” (Davies, 2005:112). The main emphasis of the quantitative approach, on the other hand, is on quantification when collecting and analysing data (Bryman, 2008). It usually involves descriptive and inferential statistics, thus generalising to a larger population (Oxford, 2011). Furthermore, qualitative and quantitative approaches can explore the same phenomenon yet provide different perspectives. Qualitative data give an in-depth interpretation of an issue while quantitative data offer a broader understanding of a phenomenon (Creswell and Clark, 2011). The qualitative approach focuses on a few individuals to gain understanding while the quantitative approach

examines larger numbers of people in order to generalise the results (Creswell and Clark, 2011).

Bryman (2008) argues that qualitative and quantitative approaches differ in their ontological and epistemological orientations when conducting any piece of research. Individual interpretation of the social world is emphasised in the qualitative approach, which views reality as “constantly shifting emergent property of individuals’ creation” (Bryman, 2008: 22). The quantitative approach, on the other hand, reflects the positivist paradigm (Davies, 2005) which views social reality as external and objective (Bryman, 2008).

This research is categorised as a qualitative study which can be defined as:

“An inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting.” (Creswell, 1998: 15).

One advantage of qualitative research is its suitability when investigating individuals' behaviours or experiences, or uncovering a particular phenomenon (Ghauri et al., 1995; Kumar, 2011). Similarly, Bryman (2008) suggested that qualitative research is well suited for exploring peoples' behaviour, beliefs and values within the particular context in which the research is carried out. In addition, the qualitative approach is concerned with cases and aims to obtain an in-depth holistic view of social life; the sample size is usually small while data from qualitative research is more flexible and can be modified as the study develops (Punch, 2009).

To be more specific, qualitative research methods help researchers to examine situations comprehensively, focusing on exploring complexities of such situations in order to get an in-depth understanding. This is achieved by getting 'under the skin' of a group or an institution to discover what happens in reality (Gillham, 2000). Furthermore, qualitative methods allow researchers to be engaged in the context and

in people's everyday lives (Barbour, 2014) which provides data that can be adapted for multiple interpretations (Gray, 2014).

The advantages of the qualitative research methods discussed above support my argument for the choice to use a qualitative approach as such features fulfil the purpose of the present study, which is to gain deep understanding of the issue of Arabic use in the EFL Saudi classrooms in a specific context. For instance, the use of interviews in the present study (discussed in section 4.7.2) helped to deeply explain and analyse students' reactions to teachers' L1 use by seeking explanations and investigating each student's viewpoint.

The quantitative approach was not considered appropriate for the present study for several reasons. Firstly, some characteristics of the quantitative approach discussed above were not applicable to the aim of my study. For instance, by involving a limited number of participants, this study aimed at providing an in-depth explanation and analysis of teachers' use of Arabic in Saudi EFL classrooms and how students responded to such use. Generalising the results and gaining a broad interpretation of the problem were not the focus of the present study. A survey questionnaire alone would not have gathered such insightful data. Furthermore, students may not have taken the time to complete a questionnaire carefully and with thought.

More importantly, as stimulated recall interviews were used in order to explore students' cognitive and affective responses, which is the core of the present study, collecting and analysing data are done qualitatively when using this kind of interview. In addition, such interviews offer access to the mental processes that cannot be accessed by other methods (Gass and Mackey, 2000) which are useful to gather qualitative data about the working memory processes (Beers et al., 2008). Furthermore, one aspect of stimulated recall interviews is to ask background questions (Plaut, 2006), look for unstructured responses (Lyle, 2003) and to allow the researcher to analyse the similarities and differences between thinking processes among participants (Gass and Mackey, 2000) which indicates that employing such interviews is crucial to gather the qualitative data needed. Therefore, these characteristics of stimulated recall methodology discussed above show the importance of adopting the

qualitative approach in order to fulfil the purpose of the present study which also explains why the quantitative approach was not suitable for this study.

4.4.1 Case study

This qualitative study adopts case study as a research approach. Within the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), the term ‘case study’ refers to the analysis of " a person, either a learner or a teacher, or an entity, such as a school, a university, a classroom, or a program” (Chapelle and Duff, 2003: 164). A case study analyses people, events, projects or institutions that are holistically investigated by one method or more (Thomas, 2011); the case can be an individual or a group and it can be a single case or multiple cases (Gillham, 2000). In addition, Stake (1995, 2005) and Yin (2013) agreed that a case study approach provides holistic understanding of a particular phenomenon within real-life contexts from the perspective of those who are involved.

A case study is advantageous for a variety of reasons. One advantage is the richness of the data gathered, as it provides an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Dörnyei, 2007) which assists researchers to gain in-depth insights about lived experiences of participants within a specific context (Hamilton, 2011; Yin, 2013). In addition, using a qualitative case study approach assists researchers to explore a particular phenomenon using different sources of data (Baxter and Jack, 2008; Thomas, 2011; Yin; 2013, Gray, 2014) which ensures exploring the issue through a variety of lenses (Baxter and Jack, 2008). Similarly, Hamilton (2011), Thomas (2011), Creswell (2013) and Gray (2014) agreed that a case study provides a rich picture of the researched topic by using different data collection methods. These methods can involve various sources of information, each with its own sampling and data analysis strategies (Creswell, 2013), in order to gather perceptions, experiences and ideas, and views of people related to the case (Hamilton, 2011).

With regards to the present study, a case study was chosen for several reasons. Firstly, the focus was on a specific phenomenon, which is the use of L1 (Arabic) in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia. Secondly, this research's aims were to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon with a detailed description of such phenomenon.

Case studies allow for this richness of data through their use of different methods (this study used semi-structured observations, stimulated recall interviews and open-ended questionnaires). Thirdly, this study did not seek to generalise from its findings and therefore did not require a large sample size. The focus of the present case study was on 30 students in the ELI to explore their responses to L1 use by teachers from different L1 backgrounds and students' preferences regarding those teachers.

4.5 The sampling procedure

Both purposive and convenience samples were used in this study. In qualitative case study research, purposive sampling is likely to be used (Richards, 2003; Chapelle and Duff, 2003). Purposeful or purposive sample is considered a key point in qualitative studies (Creswell, 1998) and involves using certain criteria to select the members of the sample (Brown, 2014). Those participants can provide useful and valuable information about the research topic (Denscombe, 2014; Ritchie et al., 2014). In addition, purposive sampling does not allow generalisation to a population (Bryman, 2012) which suited the purpose of the present study.

In this study, the criteria used when selecting participants regarding purposive sample were:

- 1) The range of teachers' L1 background (for selecting teachers)
- 2) The range of level of proficiency (for selecting students).

On the other hand, convenience sampling refers to selecting the nearest and most convenient individuals to participate and continuing with that approach until the required number of respondents has been achieved. Participants are chosen as respondents become available and accessible at the time of data collection (Cohen, et al, 2011). Convenience sampling is suitable to be used in case studies, especially with a captive audience such as students and teachers (Cohen, et al, 2011) which suited the present study.

As both convenience and purposive samples were used in this research, I followed two steps, which are illustrated below in more detail.

With regards to teachers' sampling, I followed two steps. Firstly, the convenience sample used was based on:

- a) Teachers who were colleagues of mine. They were asked to participate in the study and the number of teachers who agreed to be observed was then refined.
- b) The suitability of timing of their teaching schedules and the researcher's time available. Some teachers who agreed to participate were not chosen because of the conflict between their class times and my schedule.

The second step was to use purposive sampling and certain criteria were considered when refining the number of selected teachers, which were:

- a) Class level of proficiency (beginner-elementary- pre-intermediate-intermediate) as it was required to choose different classrooms with different levels of proficiency to allow comparisons to be made.
- b) Teachers' L1 as teachers from different L1 backgrounds were chosen to identify whether the way that Arabic is used by teachers varies according to the teachers' L1.

With regards to students' sampling, two steps were followed. Firstly, a purposive sample was used by choosing particular classrooms to be observed (see the section about observation later in this chapter for more details) with differing levels of proficiency and then students were asked to volunteer to be interviewed. The second step used convenience sampling as three students from those who agreed to participate were interviewed.

As the sample in this study consisted of a small number of participants, no representativeness could be achieved (Lawson and Philpott, 2008). According to Dörnyei (2007), a good qualitative piece of research requires a limited number of participants in order to gain the rich data needed to identify different meanings of the issue under focus. Although the present study did not aim to generalise the findings as the sample was not representative, the results of this study can be applied to other similar EFL contexts. Cohen et al (2011) suggested that the results of case studies can assist other researchers to understand similar situations, cases or phenomena. Details about the participants are presented below.

4.5.1 Participants

4.5.1.1 Teachers

I over-recruited teachers (10 teachers) because I was aware that some might drop out because they had heavy teaching loads. The total number of teachers who remained was seven. Four of them were Master's degree holders and three had Bachelor degrees. The teachers' academic qualifications were associated with the subject knowledge, which means that they did not necessarily have a background in ELT methodology. The following table shows the profiles of the seven teachers.

Table 4.2 Teacher profiles

Teachers	Academic qualifications and subject	Nationality	Teacher's L1	Non- Saudi teachers' length of time in KSA
Teacher 1	Masters (English language)	Pakistani	Urdu	1 year
Teacher 2	Masters (English language)	Indian	Urdu	4 years
Teacher 3	Bachelor (Law)	Malaysian	Malay	5 years
Teacher 4	Bachelor (Physics)	South African	English	5 years
Teacher 5	Bachelor (English language)	Saudi	Arabic	_____
Teacher 6	Masters (English language)	Saudi	Arabic	_____
Teacher 7	Masters (English language)	Saudi	Arabic	_____

Regarding the non-Arabic teachers, it is not possible to provide further information about their Arabic proficiency and familiarity with local customs of Saudi Arabia. This is because teachers are not required to take an Arabic proficiency test when they first come to teach at the ELI in order to measure their Arabic language. It is also hard to measure how familiar someone is with local customs and perceptions of how well accustomed someone is may vary. With hindsight, questions concerning these areas could have been included in the open-ended questionnaires.

4.5.1.2 Students

30 students participated in this study. The students were between 18 and 20 years of age. Access to the students was through the teachers, who were colleagues of mine based at the ELI. After the ten classrooms were observed (the reasons for choosing this particular number are discussed in section 4.6.1.2), students were asked if they wanted to volunteer to be interviewed. Three students from each class were selected to be interviewed bringing the total number to 30. One reason for choosing three students from each class was that it was believed that this number would be sufficient to allow comparisons to be made between different levels of proficiency.

Table 4.3 Number of classroom observations, students and their level of proficiency

Observations	No. of students interviewed	Students' level of proficiency
1	8 students	Elementary
2	3 students	Pre-intermediate
3		Pre-intermediate
4	3 students	Pre-intermediate
5		Pre-intermediate
6	3 students	Pre-intermediate
7	3 students	Pre-intermediate
8		Pre-intermediate
9	3 students	Pre-intermediate
10	7 students	Intermediate

4.6 Data collection methods

4.6.1 Semi- structured observation

Semi-structured observation was used in this study to be able to address the background questions (see table 4.1) which are:

- 1. Does the way that Arabic is used by teachers in university- level EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia at the ELI vary according to teachers' L1?*
- 2. Does the extent of teachers' usage of Arabic vary according to their students' level of proficiency?*

Cowie (2009) defined observation as the process of examining in detail and noticing consciously the behaviours of participants in a natural context. It is used to record

behaviours that happen under specific circumstances at a specific time (Roberts and Copping, 2008). According to Cohen et al. (2011), one distinctive feature of observation is that it allows researchers to collect naturally-occurring data from social situations rather than relying on second-hand accounts. Observation provides supplementary information for clarification purposes and this makes it a useful instrument for data collection in classroom-based research (Sharp, 2009). Observation is advantageous because it provides data regarding behaviour that participants themselves may be unaware of, or which they may not choose to share with the researcher (Foster, 1996). In addition, as observation ordinarily takes place in a natural setting (Newby, 2014), it is well suited to educational research because of the flexibility of the setting to allow direct access to interactions (Simpson and Tuson, 2003).

This means that using observation in this study within this particular context allowed me to gain naturally occurring data that helped to illustrate how teachers and students interacted with each other. In this study, I observed the EFL classroom in order to collect information about the context, the teachers and the students, so a richer picture could emerge. The products of the observations could also be blended with my findings from other data collection methods (Newby, 2014), thereby enriching and supplementing the data collected (Simpson and Tuson, 2003).

Observation schedules are advantageous for various reasons. Dörnyei, (2007) asserted that using observation schemes or schedules is a useful data collection tool that is usually associated with classroom research. Some schedules can help to organise the data systematically and provide a clear direction to assist in the process of data collection and analysis. McDonough and McDonough (1997) suggested that observation schedules help the observer to identify particular instances of classroom behaviour and note them down as they occur.

4.6.1.1 Disadvantages of classroom observation

Classroom observation can have several disadvantages. One limitation when employing observation is that participants might change their behaviour either consciously or subconsciously because they are being observed (Mackey and Gass, 2005). This is referred to as observer's paradox, in which " intervention or

measurement by an observer can directly impact (or coordinate with) the behaviour of the system being studied" (Dale and Vinson, 2013: 305). This may lead to an inaccurate representation of the issue (Foster, 1996) as teachers may become nervous because of being observed (Simpson and Tuson, 1995) which therefore may make them change their behaviour. One point that should be highlighted here is that teachers at the ELI are generally used to being observed as part of the ELI's regulations for teachers' professional development and continuous assessment. Therefore, they may not have acted differently when being observed for this study. However, I was not quite sure if all the teachers participating in this study were used to being observed. In order to overcome this problem, I found that being a non-participating observer was the best solution. However, I acknowledge that my presence could have been, to some extent, intrusive although I assured the teachers no evaluation or judgements about their teaching practices were intended for my part. It was expected, especially at the beginning of the process, that they may refrain from using L1 in order to show that they adhered to the institute's policy. To put them at ease, I explained the reason for observing their lessons.

4.6.1.2 Procedure of classroom observation

There are three types of classroom observation; structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Structured observations are used when researchers determine the criteria they want to observe in advance, which makes the observation more focused on what the researcher is looking to record.

Observation schedules are used in this type of observation in order to systematically record the behaviour of participants (Bryman, 2012) according to clear instructions to observe and record the particular behaviours. This facilitates accurate observation of the exact amount of teachers' talk as opposed to students' talk or silences (Pring, 2015). On the other hand, unstructured observation does not require the use of an observation schedule. Although in unstructured observation, as Bell (2014) suggested, the observer knows the purpose of the observation, he/she does not have a very clear idea about the details of what to be observed.

With regards to the present study, the rationale for observing the ten classrooms was:

1. to capture the moments when the teachers used Arabic;
2. to recognise the extent of Arabic used by teachers from different L1 background and
3. to identify whether teachers' use of Arabic varies according to students' level of proficiency.

Capturing the moments when teachers used Arabic helped to understand students' responses to their teachers' use of Arabic. Similarly, recognising the extent of Arabic used by teachers and its functions (explained in Chapter Five) helped to expound more about students' responses (discussed in Chapter Six) to the teachers' use of Arabic.

Another benefit for identifying the extent of teachers' Arabic use was to allow the establishment of whether students' responses to their teachers using Arabic in EFL classrooms differed according to the students' level of proficiency by exploring whether teachers' views on their Arabic use (discussed in Chapter Seven) coincided with students' views.

Therefore, semi-structured observation was employed in the current study to identify the frequency of Arabic used by teachers, and the purposes for that use, by using an observation schedule. The rationale behind using semi-structured observations is that this type of observation provided a plan that helped to gather data and get an overall picture of the participants (Cohen et al., 2011). The type of information I needed for the present study was determined in advance, as it is beneficial to establish the purpose of an observation from the outset of a study, because this can direct the researcher in a targeted and relevant manner (Bell, 2014). However, the observation schedule (see appendix 2), was made more flexible by including a space for notes, which permitted me to include any additional comments. This means that semi-structured observations were used in this study by involving both checklists and field notes. This kind of observation lies between the characteristics of structured observations (e.g. frequencies, predetermined categories) and those of unstructured observations (e.g. field notes for additional comments). Moreover, semi-structured observations were

employed in this study in order to gain an overall impression about the context (the EFL classroom) and the participants (teachers and students).

Although this study adopted a qualitative approach for data collection and data analysis, classroom observations were used to collect quantitative data, being the frequency of Arabic used by teachers. However, the study remains qualitative in nature as the quantitative element is supplementary to the qualitative data. Indeed, qualitative research is not required to be conducted solely without the use of numbers (Bryman, 2008). Another justification for considering the present study as qualitative is that

“the use of numbers is a legitimate and valuable strategy for qualitative researchers when it is used as a complement to an overall process orientation to the research. The inclusion of quantitative data does not inherently make the research a mixed-method study” (Maxwell, 2010: 480).

In the present study, the frequency of Arabic used by teachers and the categorisation of its functions represent the quantitative data (explained in Chapter Five) whereas the students' interviews (discussed in Chapter Six) and teachers' questionnaires (discussed in Chapter Seven) represent the qualitative data in this study.

The observation schedule used in this study consisted of four columns (see appendix 2), including the number of instances of Arabic used by teachers (by using tally marks), teachers' Arabic instances, functional categories of teachers' Arabic use (discussed in detail in section 4.12.1.1) and finally, a column for any additional comments. The field notes recorded any additional behaviours or issues such as teachers' informal chat with students, students' visible reactions and more categories of the functions of teachers' Arabic use. Every time the teacher used Arabic, I wrote the instance (either a single word or more) and put a tally mark in front of the relevant category of the functions of Arabic use. In addition, the field note was used to add any functional category that did not exist in the third column (see appendix 2). The observation schedule was piloted (discussed in section 4.8).

Ten classrooms were observed in order to allow comparisons to be made; one classroom at level two (elementary), eight classrooms at level three (pre-intermediate)

and one classroom at level four (intermediate). This inequality in the number of classrooms observed and being able to observe some teachers once and other teachers twice (see table 4.4) was due to conflicts in the teachers' schedules and the limited time I had available in Saudi Arabia to collect data (it was a convenience sample as discussed in section 4.5). The reason for observing some teachers twice (see table 4.4) was because that was the original plan (see table 4.5) in order to collect richer data. However, as mentioned earlier this was not always possible due to the conflicts among teachers' teaching schedules. In addition, some teachers changed their minds and dropped out because they lost interest, or because unforeseen circumstances occurred such as an ill child, or childbirth even. Nevertheless, this did not negatively affect the data collected as observing three teachers twice and four teachers once suited the purpose of the study with regards to identifying the extent of Arabic used by teachers and whether this extent varied according to the teachers' L1 background and to students' level of proficiency. Therefore, the data collected was still valuable and sufficient to answer appropriately the background questions of the present study. However, a negative effect might have occurred. With so few teachers, having some of them observed twice might have skewed the findings of the study. This will be discussed in detail (see Chapter Nine, section 9.3) where the limitations of the study are explained.

The duration of the classes being observed was equal in length (i.e. each class was observed for 50 minutes) in order to improve the consistency of the data. The amount of Arabic use was measured by calculating how many Arabic words (word count) were used out of the whole teachers' talk (excluding students' talk and conversations between teacher and students as the focus of the present study was on teachers' use of L1, not students' use). Observations were recorded using an audio recorder after getting permission from both teachers and students. This allowed me to return to the recordings to undertake the calculations and prepare data for analysis. Video-recordings were not used as they are culturally not accepted in the context of the present study. Usually women in my context do not allow others (usually non-family members) to video record them as a way to protect their modesty and religious identity, and maintain honour.

Table 4.4 Summary of number of teachers, their names (anonymised), nationality and their L1, and the number of classroom observations and class level.

Teacher number	Observation number	Teacher's name	Teacher's nationality	Teacher's L1	Class level
1	1	Wid	Pakistani	Urdu	Elementary
2	2.1	Amal	Saudi	Arabic	Pre-intermediate
	2.2	Amal	Saudi	Arabic	Pre-intermediate
3	3.1	Rania	Saudi	Arabic	Pre-intermediate
	3.2	Rania	Saudi	Arabic	Pre-intermediate
4	4	Warda	South African	English	Pre-intermediate
5	5.1	Lulu	Indian	Urdu	Pre-intermediate
	5.2	Lulu	Indian	Urdu	Pre-intermediate
6	6	Shereen	Malaysian	Malay	Pre-intermediate
7	7	Sona	Saudi	Arabic	Intermediate

4.6.2 Semi- structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were used in order to answer the main research questions which are (see table 4.1):

- 3. What are Saudi university students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background?*
- 4. How do students respond to their teachers' use of Arabic?*
- 5. How do students respond to their teachers' use of English?*

In the semi structured interviews, the questions were divided into two groups. One group addressed students' preferences for their EFL teachers's L1 background (RQ3) using semi-structured interviews. The second group was regarding students' responses to teachers' use of Arabic and English in the Saudi EFL classrooms (RQ 4 and 5) using stimulated recall interviews. Thus, a qualitative data gathering tool was adopted in the form of retrospective interviews.

One reason for using interviews as a method to gather data is their suitability for uncovering what participants think, believe and feel about a certain matter or situation, especially one in which they are involved (Bechhofer and Paterson, 2000). In addition, interviews are useful to "generate insights into matters as varied as cognitive processes in language learning" (Talmy and Richards, 2011: 1).

To be more specific, this study used stimulated recall methodology in order to discover students' cognitive and affective responses to teachers' use of Arabic as well as teachers' use of English, which is the core of the present study. Lyle (2003) defined stimulated recall methodology as "an introspection procedure in which (normally) videotaped passages of behaviour are replayed to individuals to stimulate recall of their concurrent cognitive activity" (Lyle, 2003: 861). In this kind of interview, participants are asked to verbalise their thoughts by thinking aloud after they have performed various tasks and, once they have finished a certain task, they are asked to comment on it by recalling what they can remember about their thoughts at that time (Ericsson, 2002). This kind of introspective method gives participants the opportunity to be in the centre of the investigation in the field of language learning and teaching (McDonough and McDonough, 1997), which therefore made it relevant to the present study where the students were the focus of the study.

One advantage of stimulated recall as a methodological tool is that it offers access to mental processes that cannot be accessed by other methods (Gass and Mackey, 2000). The purpose of stimulated recall methodology is to gain insight into thought and analytical process (Newby, 2014). Interviewing participants by asking them about their thoughts and feelings provides reflections on unobservable mental processes, and is called an introspective method (Mackey and Gass, 2005). One technique that can be

derived from introspective methods is stimulated recall, and this should be done after the mental process (thinking or feeling) has been completed (Brown and Rodgers, 2002; Dörnyei, 2007), after which participants are asked to reflect on their thoughts after carrying out a certain task (Gass and Mackey, 2000). In the current study, providing students with something concrete to discuss resulted in more reliable data because they were not merely going to talk aimlessly about generalities in an unfocused way, but I helped them by triggering memories of motives and feelings. Students' interviews were carried out just after classroom observations in order to attain data that was as accurate as possible (Gass and Mackey, 2000). Classroom observations were recorded, and were played back immediately after the observation in order to allow the students to reflect on them.

4.6.2.1 Disadvantages of semi-structured interviews

One weakness of stimulated recall is that social desirability bias can influence the data (Dörnyei, 2007) as students' background or knowledge may interfere with what they say. In other words, participants may give responses they believe are acceptable to others rather than reveal a potentially unpopular or stigmatised view, as they perceive it. Another limitation of this kind of interview is that it is difficult to administer as it requires careful orientation, prompting and training (White, Schramm and Chamot, 2007). To overcome this issue, I practiced this through piloting (discussed in section 4.8) before starting data collection. Moreover, Mackey and Gass (2005) and Dörnyei (2007) suggested that the information used in stimulated recall might be lost due to the gap in time between the task and the interview. To tackle this problem, time between the mental process and stimulated recalls should be minimised (Brown and Rodgers, 2002). In the current study, I interviewed students straight after classroom observations. I arranged for that in advance and made sure that there was a vacant classroom in which to conduct the interview after I had finished observing.

4.6.2.2 Procedure of the interviews

30 students were interviewed. The students were divided into three groups according to their level of proficiency; eight students from level two (elementary), 15 students from level three (pre-intermediate) and seven students from level four (intermediate). This inconsistency in the number of students interviewed from each level (see table

4.4), was due to the inconsistency in the number of classrooms observed. (This constraint was explained in detail in section 4.7.1.2 when classroom observations were discussed). Nevertheless, the inconsistency in the number of students interviewed from each level did not affect the result of the study negatively as there remained a group of students from each level which was sufficient to appropriately answer the main research questions (4 and 5). However, the findings of the present study might have been more persuasive if I had been able to include a consistent number of students from each level of proficiency in order to sufficiently answer research question 4 (c).

Immediately after each classroom observation, students were interviewed using stimulated recall (see appendix 4). They were asked individually about the mental process which happened in their mind when the teacher used Arabic. Students' responses to teachers' English use were also considered in this study as they would help to shed light on students' cognitive and affective responses to the Arabic used by their teachers. In addition, as some teachers did not use Arabic at all, or used very little Arabic, students were asked to comment on the cognitive or mental process they experienced when the teacher explained a certain point in English and the student did not understand that point. The audio recording of the extracts when the teacher used Arabic or English was played so students could comment on the occurrence by recalling their thoughts at that time. Students were asked about their cognitive responses in a variety of ways to ensure that they understood the question. The following question was asked in different ways:

Your teacher sometimes used Arabic and sometimes used English only to explain a certain point,

These are the different ways of asking:

-When she used Arabic/English, what did you do at that time at a cognitive level?

-What happened at that time in your mind?

-What you were thinking?

-What went through your mind?

The interviews lasted for 20-25 minutes and were conducted in Arabic so that students could express themselves freely. They were translated into English and then transcribed (discussed in detail later in section 4.12.2). It was very important to carry out translation checks in order to ensure accuracy and check the quality of the translation (Hennink et al., 2011). To achieve that, the translation was checked by an Arabic native colleague (see section 4.10 about reliability).

4.6.3 Open-ended questionnaires

Open-ended questionnaires were given to teachers in order to answer the follow-up question (see table 4.1) which is:

6. To what extent do the teachers' views on their Arabic use coincide with students' views of it?

In contrast to the interviews, in the open-ended questionnaire, participants were free to answer in their own words (Hair et al., 2015) and in their own time (Denscombe, 2014) which gave greater flexibility and convenience for participants to give their responses whenever they were free (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). In addition, the open-ended questionnaires offered anonymity as no face-to-face interaction was required (Savin- Baden and Major, 2012). Furthermore, Roberts and Copping (2008) suggested that if a researcher does not have time to speak to the participants individually, he or she can formulate questions and ask people to answer them.

As compared to closed-questionnaires, open-ended questionnaires are advantageous as they provide descriptive information (Munn and Drever, 1990) and can offer a rapid return of data (Bell, 2014). Moreover, open-ended questionnaires allow participants to add passion and emotions to their voice when they answer, and that may be important when interpreting and analysing the data (Newby, 2014). Such questionnaires provide fertile and rich data (Newby 2014) that reflects the complexity of participants' point of views (Denscombe, 2014).

4.6.3.1 Disadvantages of open-ended questionnaires

Savin-Baden and Major (2012) identified potential disadvantages of open-ended questionnaires which include: low response rate, lack of the opportunity to clarify issues as respondents may not understand one or more questions, no spontaneous

responses as participants have time to reflect before they answer the questions and there is a possibility to consult others which may affect participants' replies. Even if consulting others is a limitation according to Savin-Baden and Major (2012), it was an advantage in the present study. It could be that if teachers consulted others regarding the use of Arabic in the L2 classroom, this might encourage them to express their views more freely, especially if others agreed or shared the same views. In addition, while Savin- Baden and Major (2012) argued that there is a low response rate to open-ended questionnaires, this was less relevant in this study as it centred on a case study with a small sample size.

However, another limitation of open-ended questionnaires was introduced by Denscombe (2014) when he suggested that such questions require more effort from participants which may decrease their willingness to participate. With regards to the present study, some teachers took a very long time (around two months) to return the questionnaires. This was due to their full teaching load and being busy with other commitments such as administrative work and correcting examinations.

Another weakness of such questionnaires is that some respondents may not have the ability to express their viewpoints in writing (Newby, 2014) which may lead to insufficient data. However, the argument that written responses may exclude some participants because of their writing level does not hold up in this study because participants had a high literacy level.

Finally, the open questions might be so open such that participants do not know what kind of information is required, which may result in giving irrelevant or redundant data (Cohen et al., 2011). Even if this was the case in the present study, written responses were found to provide rich and insightful data, and so any limitations posed by irrelevant data were easily balanced out. However, some of the teachers' replies (3 out of 7) were not detailed and deep enough compared to the replies that might have been expected had interviews been used. This is because conducting interviews provides a richer source of information (Hopkins, 2008) by asking participants for clarification and elaboration where necessary, which helps to eliminate any misunderstandings, allowing the research questions and issues of concern to be more fully explored (Newby, 2014).

4.6.3.2 Procedure of the questionnaires

The questionnaires were sent to seven teachers by email (see appendix 6). The response from the teachers was not prompt. Some took about a month or even more to reply while others replied within a week. They were busy with their teaching loads, examination correction and family commitments. In the end, all the teachers returned the questionnaires. My original research plan changed and details of those changes are discussed below

4.7 The change of research plan

In this section, the change of the original research plan with regards to the number of participants and the data collection methods are discussed. In particular, reasons for this change and how I attempted to overcome these constraints are explained below.

Table 4.5 Original research plan

Teachers' interviews	Teachers' background	No. of observations	Students' level of proficiency	Students' interviews
Teacher 1	Arabic native	2	beginner	3 students
Teacher 2	English native	2	beginner	3 students
Teacher 3	Non- English/ Arabic	2	beginner	3 students
Teacher 4	Arabic native	2	intermediate	3 students
Teacher 5	English native	2	intermediate	3 students
Teacher 6	Non- English/ Arabic	2	intermediate	3 students
Teacher 7	Arabic native	2	advance	3 students
Teacher 8	English native	2	advance	3 students
Teacher 9	Non- English/ non- Arabic	2	advance	3 students
Total	9 teachers	18 observations		27 students

As seen in table 4.5 it was originally proposed to interview 9 teachers and each teacher was intended to be observed twice, which would have made the total number of observations 18. With regards to the number of the participating students, it was proposed to interview 9 students from each level (see table 4.5) so the total would be 27 students. However, 30 students were actually interviewed (see table 4.3) and that was discussed earlier in section 4.7.2.2.

Regarding the proposed methods to be used in this study, they were supposed to include classroom observations, students' interviews and teachers' interviews. Observations and students' interviews were carried out as originally proposed (see table 4.5) but interviewing teachers was not possible for the reasons explained below.

Due to very busy teaching schedules, interviewing teachers was not possible. For instance, I was only available for interviewing at times when teachers were busy either with teaching or doing other tasks (e.g. examination corrections, administrative work, etc.) or vice versa. Some teachers were available to be interviewed at times I was observing classrooms or interviewing students. In addition, although I had prepared a plan for data collection which took into account that teachers had busy teaching schedules, I did not anticipate that all teachers would refuse to take part in the study during the examination period. I was well aware of the reality of the participants and the context. On a more practical level, I was being flexible in order to obtain as much data as possible.

For the reasons mentioned above, teachers offered to participate by answering the questions in a written form. By doing that, it gave them more time to answer the questions and send them to me by email, which led to change the original plan. This meant that instead of using semi-structured interviews as a data gathering tool, the interview questions were given to the participants so they could reply in a written form instead of through oral interviews. This changed the data collection tool to open-ended questionnaires.

Before deciding to give teachers the open-ended questionnaires (plan B), some attempts had been made to interview teachers so that the original proposal could be fulfilled. Firstly, I asked the teachers to undertake the interviews by telephone or Skype but only three agreed. To be consistent, this option was not successful, as using different data collection methods by interviewing some teachers and giving questionnaires to others was not the right decision and could have led to inconsistent data. One teacher suggested answering the interview questions in a written form; I accepted this option and sent the questions to the teachers so that they had plenty of time to answer.

Although the original proposal had been changed with regards to the use of semi-structured interviews, the data required was gained by using the open-ended questionnaires. This indicated that I was successful up to a point in the choices made even though the original plan had not been fulfilled. Nevertheless, as discussed earlier when disadvantages of questionnaires were explained (see section 4.7.3.1), some of

the teachers' replies (3 out of 7) were not detailed and deep enough compared to the replies expected had interviews had been used. The open-ended questionnaires were used in this study to answer the follow-up questions (not the main ones), so this could be another reasonable justification for using questionnaires as a substitution for the interviews.

4.8 Piloting

A pilot study was conducted in order to reduce bias and verify that the research plan worked in practice. With regards to classroom observations, I observed one classroom in order to check the usability of the observation schedule and to become familiar with the classroom atmosphere. Some modifications were made, such as eliminating one column in the schedule (see appendices 1 and 2 to see the changes).

As for interviews, I interviewed three students in one of the classrooms in the ELI (those students' responses were excluded from the data) to practise using stimulated recall, to check the clarity of the questions and to ensure they were understandable. Subsequently, they were modified in order to make them clearer and more precise. For example, one of the questions was *"How do you think during the English classrooms?"* This question was altered because it was very general and not specific. After piloting, it was changed to: *Do you think in Arabic or in English during the English classes or when studying? "Do you separate your thinking between English and Arabic during the English classes or when studying?"* (see appendices 3 and 4 to see all the changes). However, some leading questions were kept, even after the piloting, because it was felt that asking leading questions might be helpful (Cohen et al., 2011). In the case of the present study, the use of leading questions when interviewing the students was limited to encourage them to talk and elaborate, as some were silent or replied with short answers such as "yes" or "I agree".

Lastly, the open-ended questions were also modified after being sent to a colleague (a Saudi English teacher) to ensure their accuracy and clarity. One question was replaced because it was a leading question: "Do you think that students' level of proficiency affects your use of Arabic?" This question suggested that the only reason behind the teachers' Arabic use was the students' low proficiency in the L2. This could have

indicated that I was providing them with the answer. The wording of one of the questions was altered and three further questions were deleted (see appendices 5 and 6 to see all the changes).

It is important to highlight the fact that it is impossible to conduct research with no positionality (Punch, 2009). However, there are some issues related to the insider/outsider dichotomy as there are two opposing views regarding this matter. The position of the researcher as an insider is discussed below.

The debate is extensive regarding the advantages and drawbacks of being an insider researcher (Kerstetter, 2012). Baeshin (2016: 156) echoes that being an insider is “a double-edged sword” that can be viewed as a benefit or a limitation. Having a solid knowledge of the context of the research enables the researcher to be an insider (Punch, 2009) which facilitates gaining access to the research site where a study takes place. In addition, researchers who are insiders are “uniquely positioned to understand the experiences of groups of which they are members” (Kerstetter, 2012:100) and they are capable of recruiting participants and making them engaged easily in the research process (Dwyer and Buckle 2009) more than outsider researchers. In the context of the current study, an insider is one who is familiar with the ELI, the teachers and the students as well as the atmosphere of the classrooms. Therefore, being an insider was an advantage that enabled me to access the ELI easily. First of all, an email was sent to the Vice- Dean of the ELI who responded promptly with confirmation of her permission to collect my data in the ELI. Secondly, as I am a member of staff at the ELI, being an insider researcher made it convenient for me to recruit teachers and students for the study and to get access to the classrooms through teachers.

On the other hand, being an insider researcher can be disadvantageous. For instance, using students’ stimulated recalls in the current study as the one tool to gather data might result in bias as being completely objective as a researcher is not realistic (Baeshin, 2016). This may be due to the fact that researchers cannot separate their viewpoints and personal experiences as social researchers from that of the participants (Kanuha, 2000; Bryman, 2012). Usually in qualitative research, the researcher is susceptible to subjectivity because of their active involvement in the emerged data (Barbour, 2007) by making decisions and choices about how to gather and interpret

data, which influences the results (Ratner, 2002). It was necessary to keep such potential bias in mind when interpreting the data as well (Dwyer and Buckle 2009), as my experience of teaching in the ELI sometimes made me subjective initially and I needed to reassess my position and revert to being a researcher rather than a teacher.

Being aware of the limitation of being a teacher and researcher at the same time, I aimed to put students at ease when interviews were conducted. Being an English teacher at the ELI might have made them hesitate to express themselves. Therefore, I assured them that I was speaking with them as a researcher and not as teacher to reduce the tension. During the interviews, I encouraged them to express their views freely, without any attempt on my part to express my own views, in order not to affect their replies. They were also assured that their views would not be reported to their teachers or ELI management. Regarding classroom observation, I assured teachers that whatever their practices were in the classrooms, they would not be reported to the ELI management and that my presence in the class is not related to assessment or any kind of judgement. I also spoke to the students in the beginning of the class that I am observing them for research purposes only and that they should not consider my presence to be for assessing them or their teachers.

4.9 Reliability of the research tools

Considering trustworthiness is fundamental to guarantee reliability in qualitative research (Golafshani, 2003). To ensure trustworthiness in any piece of research, the choices and decisions made by researchers throughout the research process have to be justified in order to persuade the readers (Hammersley, 1992). Similarly, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested that trustworthiness is required by qualitative researchers to convince that their findings are of value to be taken into account.

Reliability was assured in this study. Simpson and Tuson (2003: 64) provided a general definition of reliability. They refer to it as “the extent to which any event would always be classified or described in the same way, either by the same person or by different observers”. Noble and Smith (2015: 34) provide a more elaborate definition; “The consistency of the analytical procedures, including accounting for personal and research method biases that may have influenced the findings”.

Inter-rater reliability is the process of comparing the coding for agreement (Armstrong et al., 1997). To ensure that inter-rater reliability was applied in this study, a colleague (a PhD student) checked the observation schedules and listened to the audio recordings to check the consistency of the calculations and categorisations of the data. The codes and themes that emerged from interviews and questionnaires (discussed in section 4.12.2), were also reviewed by the same colleague. This is called using a 'peer debriefer' which means to allow someone who is critical and intellectual to modify and to develop the decisions made (Rallis and Rossman, 2009) about codes, categories and themes and with regards to “research methodologies, actual data, and hypotheses by a peer of the researcher during a "debriefing" session” (Davis, 1992: 607).

In order to apply intra-rater reliability to the present study, the process of reading and re-reading the transcripts of the observations (for functional categories), interviews and the open-ended questionnaires was on-going to check the codes. To be able to finalise the themes and categories, I first revisited the codes after a certain period of time had passed (around 10 days) to check and ensure congruence with the initial coding. After that, I checked the codes several times before they were finalised and then themes were generated accordingly.

4.10 Ethical Considerations

According to Punch (2009), ethical issues should be taken into consideration when conducting research that involves data gathering from and about people. Because of its nature, ethical challenges in qualitative research are more vigorous than any other type of research as qualitative research methods are used to identify beliefs and feelings of people, and requires establishing trust and intimacy in the relationship between the researcher and the participants (Hennink et al., 2012).

Thus, to consider research ethics in this study, permission to conduct the research was obtained from the head of the ELI of the female section (see appendix 7). In addition, both the teachers and students were given informed consent forms (see appendices 8 and 9) to sign in order to practically demonstrate that they agreed to take part in the study. Regarding Students' informed consent form, it was provided in both English and Arabic (see appendix 9) in order to ensure that they understand what is written so that they are fully aware of their rights regarding taking part in the research. Both the

teachers and students were made aware of the purpose of the project and in what contexts they would be reported. Participants' privacy was also assured, as all the information provided was guaranteed to remain confidential. In addition, participants' names were anonymised as other names had been created in order to hide the identity of the actual teachers. Respecting participants' privacy is considered to be a core issue when conducting research (Thomas, 2013).

Participants were made aware of the fact that they had the right to withdraw at any time during the research process. Most importantly, as students might speak negatively about their teachers regarding the use of Arabic, they were assured that what they reported would be private and confidential. Similarly, teachers might express their attitudes against policy or alternatively against what they are being instructed to do. Teachers were also assured that what they expressed in the questionnaires would remain private and confidential and that access to the data would be only granted to my PhD supervisors who represent the professional audience (Baeshin, 2016) as they might need to get access to the data for research purposes (e.g. checking the codes and themes, assisting with data analysis process) Furthermore, participants (teachers and students) were also assured that the information they provided would not be shared with other faculty members or with the authorities in the ELI. Being a colleague in the institution, I was aware that the institute prohibited the L1 use in the English classrooms. In order to be as unbiased as possible, teachers were not informed if Arabic use was a good or bad practice.

Finally, the codes of good practice for research identified by the British Education Research Association (BERA) (<https://www.bera.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/BERA-Ethical-Guidelines-2011.pdf>) and the UK Research Integrity Office's Code of Practice for Research (UKRIO) adopted by The University of Edinburgh (<http://ukrio.org/wp-content/uploads/UKRIO-Code-of-Practice-for-Research.pdf>) were considered when conducting the current study.

4.11 Data Analysis

Data in this study was gathered quantitatively by using observations and qualitatively by using interviews and open-ended questionnaires. Details about how the data were analysed are explained below.

4.11.1 Data analysis of classroom observations

With regards to observations, quantitative analysis was used by calculating the frequency of Arabic used by teachers using a word count of both Arabic and English words, excluding students' talk and silences. Word count was used following other similar studies (Rolin-Ianzitie and Brownlie, 2002; Liu et al., 2004; de la Campa and Nassaji, 2009). The process of counting the Arabic and English words was challenging as it took me a long time and effort. I listened to the recordings many times and after careful thought about the most effective way to carry out the exercise, I decided to follow the process explained below.

Classroom observations were not transcribed in full. Only Arabic utterances used by teachers were transcribed in addition to the transcription of turns immediately before and after switching to Arabic took place (see appendix 10) in order to understand the context in which each utterance occurred, which made it easier to identify the function of the utterances. This transcription was used to identify the functional categories of the teachers' Arabic use (discussed below). As one of the purposes of the observations was to identify the frequency of teachers' Arabic used by calculating percentages, there was no need to transcribe whole observations. The way I implemented the calculations fulfilled the purpose without expending needless effort and consuming time on transcribing the whole of the observations. Then, the percentages of Arabic and English words (a word could be a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, an article or a verb) were calculated to show the extent of Arabic used by teachers from different L1 backgrounds.

Regarding the quantification of the amount of L1 use, there are different ways to estimate this in classrooms. For instance, Duff and Polio (1990) adopted the 15-second sampling method and used a digital watch that stopped every 15 seconds. Then they coded the teachers' utterances following seven classifications such as: utterance fully

in English (L1), mostly in English with one word or phrase in L2, or mixture of both languages. Likewise, Macaro (2001) used time intervals of 5 seconds in his sampling. He used an audio-recorded bleep that played every 5 seconds. Duff and Polio (1990: 156) suggest that this method is “efficient” as there is no need to transcribe the tapes. Yet this method of sampling might not give a precise quantification of both languages.

Word count was used in some studies including those of Rolin-Ianzitie and Brownlie (2002), and Liu, et al. (2004). Although this method is thought to be a highly accurate way of calculation, it is problematic. The writing features and typology, morphology, and syntactic structure are different in Arabic and English. For example, the possessive pronouns in Arabic take the form of suffixes; they are attached to the noun: (kalam-**i** = “*my pencil*”) and (kalamu-**ha** = “*her pencil*”). The definite articles in Arabic are joined to the noun: (**al**kalam = “*the pencil*”). Therefore, what counts as one word in Arabic, counts as two words in English. In some cases, Arabic may use fewer words than English for the same amount of information, for example, in the future continuous: (sa’atani bilmanzil = “*I will be looking after the house*”).

Regarding the present study, in order to identify the amount of Arabic used during the classroom observations, I carried out a word count, even though using this method was challenging and problematic as discussed above. This is because this type of counting helped to make systematic comparisons across different teachers and lessons, which suited the purpose of the current study. Quantifying the Arabic use was done by listening to the audio recordings and carrying out the word count for both Arabic and English words by putting a tally mark for each word I heard. After I finished, I counted the tally marks to arrive at the total number of English and Arabic words. In order to ensure that I had captured all the Arabic utterances, I listened twice to the recordings.

4.11.1.1 Functional categories of teachers' Arabic use

Other observational data regarding the functional categories (listed below) of Arabic use was analysed qualitatively because, as Cohen et al (2011) suggested, for less structured observational data, such as data from field notes, qualitative analysis tools can be used, including coding and categorising. This will be seen in the next chapter when discussing the results of the study.

To determine the functions of Arabic utterances, all such utterances were identified first by reading the transcripts more than once. An Arabic utterance was seen as one in which an L1 instance had been inserted by teachers. According to Mackey, et al. (2003: 45, cited in de la Campa and Nassaji, 2009: 746), an utterance can be defined as: "a stream of speech with at least one of the following characteristics: a) occurring under one intonation contour, b) bounded by a pause, and c) constituting a single semantic unit". This means that when a student interrupted the L1 stream of speech used by a teacher, that stream of speech was counted as one L1 utterance and a new L1 utterance was counted if the teacher continued using L1 after the student interruption (de la Campa and Nassaji, 2009: 746).

It might be argued that it would be useful to count the number of instances or utterances which were produced in Arabic rather than simply count the number of words produced in Arabic. This is because a speaker might produce only one instance (with, arguably, only one intended function) that is long in terms of word-length, and this could produce a high percentage score for a teacher that, in terms of their interactions, does not use Arabic that often. However, for the most part, it was easy to determine whether someone used an Arabic word or not. Apart from, perhaps, religious expressions, words either belong fairly exclusively to Arabic or they do not. Thus, the phenomenon is more measurable than, say, attempting to define and count instances of Arabic use, which can be a complicated matter. Percentage-of-words scores allowed for numerical comparisons between teachers. Moreover, the study was concerned with the functions of the Arabic use and the students' responses in those contexts, and, as long as these elements could be meaningfully isolated, described and analysed, it was not necessary to count instances.

Functions of Arabic instances (see table 4.6) were determined in the light of the categories identified from previous research studies (Sali, 2014; de la Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Liu et al., 2004). Table 4.6 shows definitions of functional categories. Categories 1, 3 and 7 and their definitions were taken from de la Campa and Nassaji (2009), with some modification to the definitions, as I added more explanations and examples to make those definitions clearer. Functional category number 5 was taken from Liu et al. (2004) but the definition was taken from Baeshin (2016), whereas for the categories 2, 4 and 6, their definitions were taken and modified from Sali (2014). These categories were taken from these particular studies mentioned above, and not others, because they are relevant to the categories which emerged from the present study. The order of presenting the functional categories as they are in table 4.6 is based on the frequency of Arabic instances identified in the present study (Findings about the functional categories are discussed in greater detail in Chapter Five, section 5.3).

Table 4.6 Definitions of functional categories of L1 use and examples.

Functional categories and their definitions	Examples from the researcher's observation schedules
1. Administrative and illustrative issues: L1 utterances related to administrative issues (e.g. classroom management, exam instruction) or illustrative issues (e.g. giving examples)	<p>You know how to write about advantages and disadvantages. Pros and cons means advantages and disadvantages. (<i>Eza jakum fi alektibar</i>) [if it comes in the exam] pros and cons they mean the same thing.</p> <p>OK girls? So this is the first one. (<i>Fihimtu banat</i>)? [do you understand it?]</p>
2. Grammar explanation: L1 used to explain L2 grammatical rules (e.g. provide the meaning of English verb tenses in Arabic)	<p>With second conditional, you always use were instead of was, so (<i>badal</i>) [instead of] was (<i>testakdeme</i>) [we use] were even (<i>ma'aa alkalemat</i>) [with pronouns] he, she and it and I. So (<i>hatestakdeme</i>) [you use] was (<i>badal</i>) [instead of] were (<i>bas fi</i>) [only with] if clause.</p>
3. Translation: L1 used to translate L2 words or sentences. (e.g. translating difficult and complex vocabulary)	<p>Homework <u>manatu wajib</u> [means homework] and housework <u>manatu shugl albeit</u> [means household].</p>
4. Attracting students' attention: L1 instances used to attract students' attention to make them focus.	<p>So the simplest way to start is to write: I am going to write about the advantages and disadvantages look (<i>hena ana sagart alkilma</i>) [here I use abbreviation]. But do not do that you have to write the whole word.</p>
5. Unprincipled L1 use: L1 instances that mixed with L2 words for no obvious reason. (e.g. L1 discourse marker or linking words).	<p>I want to have a restaurant of my own I do not want to work (<i>leanu fi</i>) [because there is] restaurant (<i>fulus fulus</i>) [money money]. Ok?</p>
6. Drawing upon shared cultural expression: L1 words from the L1 culture that the teacher used in between L2 speech.	<p>Please remember that listening part is important for your speaking exam and there will be questions about bad habits in your country. This is not included in your exam [pointing to certain page] so we are about to finish this unit (<i>Insha'Allah</i>) [God willing].</p>
7. Humor: L1 instances used by teachers to make students laugh or to build rapport. (e.g. jokes).	<p>Now, let's go to problem number 2. Would you like to read, Hanan?</p> <p>Hanan is sleeping today. She is on a different ahh (<i>kawkab</i>) [planet] Students laughed</p>

Note: English translations are mentioned in brackets just after the insertion of the Arabic word/s.

It is important to note that at times these utterances may arguably fall into more than one functional category and serve a variety of purposes. It is difficult to match the exact mapping of functions to the teachers' L1 use, as definitions are mutually exclusive. However, this may not reflect the nature of the actual communicative settings examined. In order to justify the overlapping in the functions of Arabic use, Ferguson (2009: 131) explains that:

“...switches are very often multifunctional, the implication being that it is therefore difficult to allocate a discrete determinate meaning to every switch. An issue here also, given the luxuriance of functions identified, is the absence of any agreed taxonomy of pedagogic functions, one reason being that, given the almost unlimited local meanings generated by code juxtaposition in discourse, any such taxonomy would be open-ended.”

Similarly, Tian and Macaro (2012) agreed; they suggested that functions of L1 are unlimited and lack principled guidelines. Therefore, in order to tackle the issue of multi-functionality of the teachers' Arabic use in the present study, instances were identified and categorised based on the functional categories taken from the literature (illustrated above) in addition to my own interpretation. This means that the Arabic instances categorised above have one main function (primary function) for each category and other sub-functions, presenting a richer and more nuanced picture. For instance, one primary function of an L1 instance could be translation and the sub-functions could be translating for humour or translating to attract students' attention.

In order to quantify the functional categories of teachers' Arabic use, all the utterances were classified according to the functional categories in the light of previous literature (Liu et al., 2004; de la Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Sali, 2014). Then, I calculated manually the number of utterances by classifying similar functional categories together. After that, I calculated the percentage of each category manually. The functional categories of Arabic use, their definitions and examples are illustrated in detail in table 4.6 above.

4.11.2 Data analysis of interviews and open-ended questionnaires

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data, as this is the common method used to analyse qualitative data (Roulston, 2001). This is because this form of analysis assists researchers to recognise, analyse and present patterns or themes (Braun and Clarke, 2008). In addition, Joffe and Yardley (2003) argue that thematic analysis pays special consideration to the qualitative side of the analysed data. Leininger (1985: 60), considers that themes bring “together components or fragments of ideas or experiences, which often are meaningless when viewed alone”.

With regards to the students' interviews, they were conducted in Arabic in order to make sure that the students understood the questions and could answer them appropriately. As the interviews were recorded, I did not transcribe in Arabic first. While I was listening to the recordings, I translated into English and transcribed at the same time. Full transcriptions were done for the whole interviews. After transcription, the data was coded (see appendix 11) and then grouped into themes using thematic analysis.

With regards to the open-ended questionnaires, they were written in English so the teachers responded in English. As the responses were sent to me by email, they were received in a format ready for coding.

Qualitative data analysis consists of a number of core tasks that include identifying codes and themes, making descriptions, comparisons and categorisation (Hennink et al., 2012). The first step in analysing qualitative data is coding, which refers to the process of categorising a group of words (Robson, 1993). This is the core of qualitative data analysis as it assists the researcher to identify similar information (Cohen et al., 2011), as well as label ideas and put evidence into groups, so that broader perspectives can emerge from the data (Creswell and Clark, 2011). A code “is a name or label that the researcher gives to a piece of text that contains an idea or a piece of information” (Cohen et al., 2011: 559). The process of coding (discussed below) requires going through a piece of transcription systematically line by line, finding codes and writing them by the side of each piece of transcription (Cohen et al., 2011; Saldaña, 2016).

The coding process is a crucial stage of qualitative data analysis (Basit, 2003) and it involves establishing meaningful categories using units of analysis (e.g. phrases, words, sentences, etc.) in order to compare categories and make connections and associations between them (Basit, 2003; Cohen et al., 2011; Brown, 2014; Saldaña, 2016) and then draw conclusions from the text (Cohen et al., 2011). Codes serve as labels or tags that are attached to a variety of chunks of words, phrases or sentences (Basit, 2003). The process of coding the interviews and the open-ended questionnaires is discussed below.

When I coded my data, I used two types of coding; open coding and template or priori coding. Open or initial coding means to identify certain codes within the data with no preconceptions determined in advance (Blair, 2015) as codes are developed while reading the transcripts (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). According to Saldaña (2016: 115) initial coding is an open-ended approach that helps “to provide the researcher analytic leads for further exploration”. Template coding, on the other hand, means to use “a purposefully developed framework...as a tool for framing data into a coherent construct” (Blair, 2015: 17). Miles & Huberman (1994) and Blair (2015) added that template coding requires preparing a list of codes beforehand that are based on or in relation to problem areas, research questions or hypotheses.

One reason for using open coding first then template coding is that it is rarely that a researcher can precisely codify the data the first time (Saldaña, 2016) and that qualitative data analysis requires “meticulous attention to language and images, and deep reflection on the emergent patterns and meanings of human experience” (Saldaña, 2016: 11) which is not possible in the first attempt of coding the data. Although open coding is time consuming, it was advantageous when I used it in the present study. Unlike template or priori code, open coding helps to explore interesting data even though they are not relevant directly to the research questions. For instance, identifying students’ perceptions of the good English teacher (discussed in Chapter Six, section 6.3) was not one the research questions but using open coding helped to identify frequent codes that were derived from interesting data produced by students. Student perceptions of what a good teacher was, after coding, became a theme in the present study. However, one limitation of open coding is that it does not reveal the fact that it

is very challenging to analyse data without determining some assumptions in advance (Gläser & Laudel, 2013). For these reasons discussed above, I used both open and template coding.

Therefore, I first started with initial codes (see appendix 11) to describe students' and teachers' replies using open coding and at this stage not all the codes were relevant to research questions. As some of the codes identified (during the open coding stage) were not related to the research questions, such codes were discarded and not considered (see appendix 11). Then, I used template coding by determining some codes and themes in light of the research questions (see appendix 11) and based on the results of the open coding. After that, all similar codes were grouped together in order to find patterns (Braun and Clarke, 2008). At this stage, codes were categorised according to their relevance to research questions. For example, all students' statements about their affective responses to teachers' L1 use were grouped together. At this stage, themes emerged as a result of the frequency of codes across the 30 students.

The process of coding was very challenging as it was necessary to revisit the participants' replies several times to recode and modify themes in order to finalise the process. It is important to note that some of the data have not been coded. This is because that it is normal when coding data that some parts of the transcripts could be left without being coded which does not indicate that such data are not important but they only have not been categorised (Blair, 2015).

4.12 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the methodology used in this study. It first presented the aim of the study. After that, the research questions have been addressed and the epistemological and ontological positions discussed. Following this, the methods used for data gathering have been described and supported with the rationale for the choice of these particular tools. Research ethics were then considered as a crucial factor in any piece of research and, finally, the methods used to analyse the data presented in the subsequent chapter have been discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS FROM CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

5.1 Introduction

As discussed in Chapter One, this study focused on three groups of teachers: NASTs, NESTs and NNEASTs in EFL classrooms. The aim of the classroom observations was to examine and compare the extent of Arabic usage by all groups of teachers and the functions of such use. This chapter reports the findings related to research questions 1 and 2 (see below); these questions are background questions and were addressed by using classroom observations as noted in the Methodology Chapter (see Chapter Four). The themes arising from consideration of these questions are deliberated fully in Chapter Eight.

Background questions

1. Does the way that Arabic is used by teachers in university- level EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia at the ELI vary according to teachers' L1?
 - a) To what extent and how is Arabic used by native Arabic speaker teachers?
 - b) To what extent and how is Arabic used by native English speaker teachers?
 - c) To what extent and how is Arabic used by non-native English/Arabic speaker teachers?
2. Does the extent of teachers' usage of Arabic vary according to their students' level of proficiency?

This chapter presents the findings of the classroom observations that showed the extent of Arabic usage, and, specifically how it was used in the EFL classrooms by teachers from different L1 backgrounds. The frequency of Arabic words used, and functional categories for such use, were considered when analysing these findings. In addition, the extent of teachers' use of Arabic is highlighted in this chapter and whether it varied according to their students' level of proficiency. The chapter elaborates on the background of the study as it provides and adds more detail about the context (established in Chapter Four) in which this research took place.

5.2 The extent (amount) of teachers' use of Arabic

Five teachers out of the seven used Arabic to some extent. Table 5.1 shows the detail of the teachers who were observed (teachers' names have been changed in order to maintain anonymity), and the amount of Arabic they used. The remaining teachers (two out of the seven did not use Arabic at all in the observed lessons. One was a Pakistani teacher and the other one a Saudi (elaborated on below in more detail). The fact that no Arabic usage was witnessed in the Saudi teacher's classroom could be partly a product of the observer's paradox (discussed in Chapter Four, section 4.6.1.1). Alternatively, it may be that she was teaching intermediate students (the highest level at the ELI; see Chapter Four), and she did not feel the need for Arabic because of her perceptions of students' English proficiency in that class. In the case of the Pakistani teacher, it is understood that she had a lack of Arabic. Although, she had maintained she did not speak Arabic or use Arabic in the classroom, there is the possibility that she knew more than she said she did and that she might use it without thinking. It was hard to recruit teachers for the study so I still included her.

Table 5.1 The teachers' use of Arabic, the extent of use and amount of Arabic used in EFL classrooms in ELI.

Teacher number	Observation number	Teachers' names	Teachers' nationality	Teachers' L1	Class level	No. of Arabic words	% of Arabic words	No. of English words	% of English words
1	1	Wid	Pakistani	Urdu	Beginner	0	0 %	0	100%
2	2.1	Amal	Saudi	Arabic	Pre-intermediate	159	7.3%	2007	92.7%
	2.2	Amal	Saudi	Arabic	Pre-intermediate	143	6.9%	1909	93.1%
3	3.1	Rania	Saudi	Arabic	Pre-intermediate	34	1.9%	1793	98.1%
	3.2	Rania	Saudi	Arabic	Pre-intermediate	69	3.7%	1807	96.3%
4	4	Warda	South African	English	Pre-intermediate	9	0.9%	1539	99.1%
5	5.1	Lulu	Indian	Urdu	Pre-intermediate	6	0.3%	1824	99.7%
	5.2	Lulu	Indian	Urdu	Pre-intermediate	27	1.5%	1748	98.5%
6	6	Shereen	Malaysian	Malay	Pre-intermediate	7	0.4 %	1997	99.6%
7	7	Sona	Saudi	Arabic	Intermediate	0	0%	0	100%

The total word count was 454 Arabic and 14,624 English words taking all teachers together (those who used Arabic). This is equal to an overall use of 3.1 % Arabic words and 96.9 % English words. When comparing the three groups of teachers in terms of their Arabic use, the NASTs used more Arabic than the other teachers as their Arabic usage ranged between 0% - 7.3% whereas the Arabic used by the other teachers ranged between (0% - 1.5%) (see table 5.1). This is in terms of the number of Arabic words, not the number of instances (this was discussed extensively in Chapter Four, section (4.11.1.1)).

Regarding NASTs, all, except Sona, used Arabic more than the teachers from different backgrounds (see table 5.1). This is most likely because Arabic is easier for NASTs to use it than for other teachers whose L1 is not Arabic. Another reason might be that using Arabic made the teachers feel more confident. The most dominant functions in this group for Arabic use were translation and grammar explanation (this will be elaborated upon in section 5.3), and so, quite reasonably, we might attribute Arabic use to giving NASTs confidence in explaining difficult linguistic matters. On the other hand, regarding the NESTs, only one participated and she used Arabic about 0.9% of her class time (see table 5.1). As will be presented in depth in section 5.3, Warda used Arabic for various functions such as humour and classroom management.

Regarding the third group of teachers, the NNEASTs, three participated in this study (see table 5.1). One of them was Pakistani (Wid), and she did not use Arabic at all and I understand that she had no knowledge of Arabic. Although this teacher reported that she had been in Saudi Arabia for less than a year, she could not explain why she had not been able to learn any Arabic at all. It may be that the Arabic words she had picked up were too few to highlight when asked suddenly to take part in the research. The second teacher in this group was Malaysian (Shereen). She used Arabic for 0.4% of her talk (seven Arabic instances) and was observed once. The third NNEAST was an Indian teacher (Lulu) and she was observed twice. Lulu used about 0.3% of Arabic in her first class and 1.5% Arabic in her second. As percentages, rather than instances have been used (as discussed in Chapter Four), it is still possible to make comparisons

within this group of teachers, even though Shereen was only observed once rather than twice. This group of teachers used Arabic for various functions, which are analysed below in more detail.

5.3 Functional categories of teachers' use of Arabic

In this next section, I attempt to explore the functions of teachers' use of Arabic in the EFL classes in this study (see table 5.2 and figure 5.1). This is in consideration of the findings of previous studies that suggested that L1 use in EFL classrooms serves various functions. The most dominant function of using Arabic was *administrative and illustrative issues*. That is the first functional category as it represents the highest number of Arabic instances.

Table 5.2 Overview of functional categories of L1 use and number of L1 instances

Functional categories	Total no. of L1 instances	2 NASTs		1 NEST	2 NNEASTs	
		1	2		1	2
1. Administrative and illustrative issues	30	20	6	2	2	-
2. Grammar explanation	23	17	5	-	-	1
3. Translation	17	1	6	1	8	1
4. Attracting students' attention	15	5	3	-	7	-
5. Unprincipled L1 use	13	13	-	-	-	-
6. Drawing upon shared cultural expression	6	1		1	4	-
7. Humour	4	1	-	1	2	-
TOTAL	108					

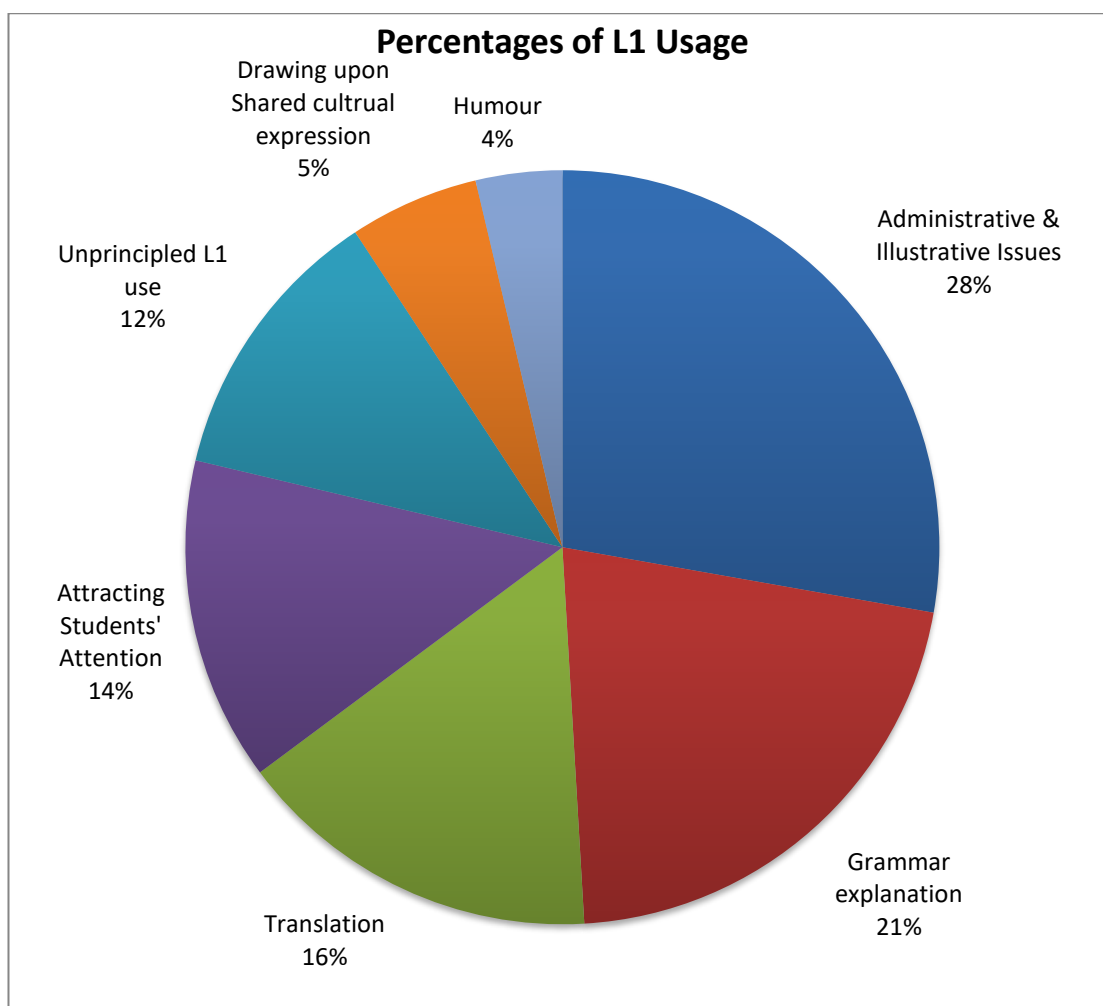


Figure (5.1) Percentages of Arabic use

It is important to emphasise that at times these utterances may arguably fall into more than one functional category and serve a variety of purposes. It is difficult to allocate the exact mapping of functions to teachers' L1 use, as definitions are mutually exclusive, but this may not reflect the nature of the actual communicative settings examined. As discussed in Chapter Three (see section 3.2.3.1), it is not easy to apply a distinct function to every L1 utterance (Ferguson, 2009). Similarly, Tian and Macaro (2012) suggested that functions of L1 are unlimited and lack principled guidelines. Therefore, in order to address the issue of multi-functionality of teachers' Arabic use in the present study, instances were identified and categorised based on the functional categories taken from the literature (illustrated above) in addition to my own interpretation of them. This means that the Arabic instances categorised above have one main function (primary function) for each category as well as other sub-functions,

presenting a richer and more nuanced picture. For instance, one primary function of an L1 instance could be translation and the sub-functions could be translating for humour or to attract students' attention. Examples of Arabic instances and their functions are explained and illustrated below in detail.

Before providing examples of the functions of teachers' Arabic use, it is worth recognising that teachers sometimes used a single Arabic word and sometimes an entire sentence in Arabic. For this reason, it is important to note that I do not differentiate between one-word insertions and entire sentences because I am interested in the functions themselves rather than quantifying the amount of L1 used to carry out the function.

5.3.1 Administrative and illustrative issues

The most dominant function for using Arabic was to explain administrative and illustrative issues. Although this category could be seen as two separate categories, they have been combined because very few instances were used for illustrative purposes. So, the two categories have been combined into one category in order to allow comparisons with other functional categories. Teachers used 30 Arabic instances in this category (see table 5.2). They used the L1 for a variety of purposes such as classroom management or for pedagogical purposes, including giving instructions, or for illustrative issues such as giving examples in order to elicit student contributions and facilitate understanding.

All groups of teachers (except two teachers) used Arabic instances for this purpose (28%, see Figure 5.1), which may have assisted them to control the classroom time as less explanation of the lesson would have been required. This would have helped to maintain the pace of the lesson and engage students in the learning process. This L1 use also reflects teachers' awareness of ensuring their students understand important issues such as classroom rules, task instructions and examination regulations. When teachers use Arabic to explain examination regulations, it may indicate that they want to add emphasis and make students take notes about the instructions. Furthermore, when describing examination regulations, teachers want to be 100% certain that everyone has understood.

5.3.1.1 Native Arabic speaker teachers (NASTs)

With regards to the NASTs, both used Arabic for predominantly administrative and illustrative purposes, though the amount of Arabic used varied between the two. Rania only used six instances while Amal used 20 instances.

When she was about to start a speaking exercise, Amal said:

“Work in groups in groups girls, work in groups.

(Students were talking with each other).

Move girls, please move **yalla**. [*come on or hurry up*].”

Another instance of this functional use used by Rania:

Shofi fi atamreen alawal illi fi al box alsamawi [*look at the first exercise in the blue box*].

In these examples, both Amal and Rania used Arabic for task instructions in order to manage classroom time and stimulate students so they would be engaged and start working on the tasks given. However, these two instances of Arabic use are actually different. The first involves reprimanding and may have had more weight in Arabic as students would have realised that their teacher was being serious about wanting to start the task. Hence, it is more than just one word. Of course, this raises the question of why students might take this type of instruction more seriously. In a context where English is expected, any salient stimulus deliberately employed communicatively may have the power to shock and focus attention, and L1 use can be such a stimulus. Moreover, the use of Arabic with the imperative mood may have led to an overall need to take the instruction seriously. However, the Arabic arguably served the key role in focusing attention in this example. In the second example, Arabic was used for instruction and was present in the whole sentence. The main function of L1 use by teachers in the above-mentioned examples was to give task instructions. The sub-functions could have been to keep students engaged in the task, elicit their responses and encourage them to participate.

In the following example, Amal used Arabic for illustrative reasons, which is the main function of this instance. The sub-functions were to facilitate students' comprehension and more clearly make the point that she was explaining.

Amal said:

Ok so ya'animathalan [*for example*] your mum mumkin tigullik [*may say to you*]
your mum mumkin tigullik aktar shay [*may use mostly with you*] 'should' OK?
Because it's best for you. It's good for you.

In this instance, Amal gave an example in Arabic using a mothers' advice to clarify how 'should' can be used. This Arabic example, from real life, might have helped students to understand how to use 'should' in a sentence. English modals can be difficult to acquire for speakers of other languages and there are no modals in Arabic. Providing contextual information in a more accessible manner through using students' L1 might more easily enable them to access the contextual support needed for acquisition of the modal in this illustration.

In another example, Amal also tried to check students' comprehension of the task by inserting an Arabic instance to make sure they understood the idea of how to do the exercise so that she could move on to the next part of the exercise.

Amal said:

OK girls? So this is the first one. Fihimtu banat [*do you understand it girls*].
Read the example.

When using Arabic for this function, teachers also wanted to elicit a response from students; students usually replied in Arabic.

L1 instances used by one of the NASTs were used to ask questions in Arabic in order to encourage students to respond. For example, Amal said:

T: if I would travel around the world if I (be) ...rich...so eish hatesawi [*what are you going to use in the blank?*]
S: I would travel around the world if I were rich.

T: **Esh ya'ani asas** [*what does basics mean?*],

S: basics.

In this instance, Amal asked questions in Arabic. She first asked students what to put in the blank as part of the task instruction so students could reply to the teacher and move on to complete the exercise. Similarly, Amal then asked them about the meaning of a word "*basics*", as this word came in the rubric of the exercise so that students were able to progress and finish the exercise.

I believe both Arabic questions were intended to elicit students' responses, as the students often replied to the teacher. I also consider it is reasonable to infer that Amal considered the use of Arabic to be an effective solution to solving problems of responding, engaging and participation. Moreover, it is possible that Amal considered that the use of the L1 might increase student confidence and comfort if they knew that they could 'fall back on' Arabic once in a while when more complex classroom situations arose.

5.3.1.2 Native English speaker teacher (NESTs)

Warda also used Arabic to encourage her students to speak and communicate in English. Teachers might believe that this is pedagogically effective for stimulating learning and focusing on the L2. Although this use seems similar to how the teachers in the previous section used L1, it may have been more important to this teacher, who may have used Arabic for other sub-functions, such as attracting attention and building rapport, as she and the students did not share the same culture. This illustrates how teachers' use of L1 can serve multiple functions at the same time, as discussed by Ferguson (2009) (see Chapter Three, section 3.2.3.1).

For instance, she said

I can't hear you even talking; you have to communicate with each other. You have to talk to each other. Now talk talk talk.

Yalla yalla [*come on come on*]. It is discussion time you must talk.

(Students are talking to each other, some of them in Arabic).

Englizi, bas englizi [English only English].

In this instance, Warda was trying to encourage her students (**Englizi, bas englizi**) to communicate in English only (class room management). By using the Arabic words (**Yalla yalla**) she was asking them to start the task, which was group discussion (task instruction). Interestingly, it was somewhat contradictory for Warda to insist on using English only when she was using Arabic herself. The point must be made, however, that Warda used to Arabic in this instance when attempts to repeat something in English appear not to have worked. It could be that, sometimes, Arabic is employed as a 'plan B' or 'repair strategy' when attempts to achieve something in English fail. This would be applicable to the maximal position (discussed in Chapter Two) proposed by Macaro (2001) where Arabic would be used only as a last resort.

5.3.1.3 Non-native English/ Arabic speaker teachers (NNEASTs)

One NNEAST, Lulu, used Arabic word insertion for illustrative issues. She wanted to illustrate the meaning of the words she was explaining (main function) in order to elicit responses from the students (sub-function). Interestingly, she used one pattern of asking questions to do that on three different occasions in her classroom:

What is **ma'ana** [meaning] of dead body?

What is the **ma'ana** [meaning] of ever heard from him?

Ladies what are the hard words there? Can you tell me? He left his car, what is **ma'ana** [meaning] of left?

Students know the meaning of the word "**ma'ana**" in English but the teacher might have used it in Arabic as an attempt to elicit students' response. It also served as a device to focus attention on the element of the instruction/request, which was informationally most important for making sure the task was completed. A switch to Arabic could have been used here to highlight something the students needed to attend to. Another reason for using Arabic here might have been to show students that she knew Arabic, which would help to build rapport with them. As this teacher did not share the same L1 with her students, her use of Arabic might indicate that she wanted to build solidarity with them.

Lulu also used Arabic for task instruction:

Nada please go on. Go on **kammel kammel** [*go on*].

Lulu gave the instruction in Arabic. She used the word “*kammel*”, an Arabic word which was intended to encourage the student to continue reading. Initially, the teacher had asked the student in English to go ahead and read. The student might not have understood what the teacher had said, so the teacher opted for Arabic. However, it should be noted that Lulu used incorrect Arabic grammar and it is not clear whether she did that on purpose or not. The correct form should be 'kammeli' (the second person pronoun suffix 'i' is missing). Teachers' use of incorrect Arabic words might make students laugh and they actually laughed at the time. Lulu confirmed that she intentionally wanted to make the students laugh (see Chapter Seven), which is an indication that she wanted to build rapport with them.

It can be seen that teachers from a variety of backgrounds used L1 to control what happens in the classroom, manage behaviour, focus attention, and explain complex procedures.

5.3.2 Grammar explanation

Explanation of grammar was one of the most frequently used functions of Arabic in the classroom. Arabic for this purpose was used in 21% of all Arabic instances (see figure 5.1).

5.3.2.1 Native Arabic speaker teachers

Using L1 for grammatical explanation was also one of the most dominant functions of Arabic employed by NASTs (see table 5.2). Not surprisingly, this is perhaps because grammar explanation needs a solid knowledge of Arabic to be able to explain grammatical rules, a knowledge that non-Arab teachers do not have, so that they can compare and contrast English and Arabic grammar. In terms of typology, for example, there are numerous syntactic/morphological and semantic/pragmatic features of English and Arabic that do not correspond precisely across these languages. For example, Arabic alters verb meaning and tenses by changing elements inside the root, whereas English makes use of pronouns and suffixation and only changes the root in

irregular verbs. For example, the verb ‘he opens’ becomes ‘he opened’ in the past tense in English while for the same verb in Arabic, ‘yaftah’ is becomes ‘fatah’ in the past tense.

In terms of sense, the meaning of certain auxiliary verbs like ‘have’, or modal verbs like ‘have got to’, can be very subtle and very vague at the same time, and contextualisation using information and support in the L1 can be a shortcut for providing the contextual support needed. Both types of case exemplified by data from this study are shown below.

For instance, Amal said in a pre-intermediate class:

I’ve got to go now. Alright? So have got plus the infinitive **esh huwa al-infinitive**? [*What is the infinitive*]? **Alfi’il fi al Masdar** [*the base form of the verb*]. Like to go, to work, to help. The infinitive is a verb after to. "Have" to express obligation.

Another Arabic native teacher, Rania, said:

Very quickly before we start if I say I have a book, or I have got a book, he has a car, what is that? **milkiyyah** [*possession*]. **milkiyyah** [*possession*] you own it, means possession.

Ok. 'Have got' means the same thing **nafs ashay**. [*the same thing*]. This is used more often: 'I have a book'. But if you say I have got a book both mean the same thing **bas ahyanan** [*but sometimes*] 'have got' is used **llrasmi** [*for formal*].

In these examples, Amal and Rania explained grammar using some Arabic words to clarify some of the concepts of the grammar they were teaching. It is important to note here that both teachers provided incorrect rules and I am aware of that. However, I did not comment on that because teachers’ errors were not the focus of my study.

5.3.2.2 *Non-native English/Arabic speaker teachers*

Very little Arabic was used by this category of teachers and only one used Arabic for this function. Shereen used one Arabic word when explaining grammar:

T: Ok good try. For example, if I say I may go home late today. Can I change the word may to I might go home late today? What does 'may' mean? You can tell me in Arabic. Is it like mumkin [may]?

S: Like may.

T: Exactly thank you, like 'may'.

In this example, the teacher gave the Arabic word when she was explaining grammar, which encouraged the students to give the English meaning. This example shows that the teacher wanted to elicit a response from students. She also might have wanted to show her students that she knew some Arabic words, which helped to build rapport. Indeed, she confirmed this in the open-ended questionnaire (see Chapter Seven). In fact, there is a particular way that Shereen tried to build rapport. In this example, it is almost as if she was asking students whether *she* understood the Arabic word correctly. This communicated her vulnerability, but also that she was brave enough to show it, which humanised her. It also shows that language learning involves mistakes and, sometimes, simply 'having a go'. She modelled what it means to be a genuine, confident language learner, which may have created comfort for, and rapport with, her students. Another benefit of L1 use here was to facilitate understanding. The teacher asked students to reply in Arabic but, as they did not do so, she provided the Arabic equivalent to make sure they got the meaning and understood the grammatical rule. This was clear in the previous example when Shereen asked her student:

What does 'may' mean? You can tell me in Arabic.

Although there was only one example from the observations it was clear from the interviews with students and questionnaires given to teachers that Arabic was sometimes used for to explain grammar by all of the teachers. I believe that such Arabic used by non-Arabic native speaker teachers when explaining grammar may

help to elicit a response from students, make them engaged in the learning process and encourage them to participate, as they are learning Arabic as well. However, it also serves some affective functions, as the teacher may have used some Arabic words because the class was silent and she wanted the students to be more active and engaged in the lesson.

5.3.3 Translation

Translation was the third most used function, comprising 16% of all Arabic instances (see figure 5.1). Arabic words were used to translate English both words and full sentences (see table 5.2).

5.3.3.1 Native Arabic speaker teachers

NASTs used 7 instances (see table 5.2) to translate from English to Arabic. For instance, Rania said:

Homework manatu wajib [*means homework*] and housework manatu shughl albeit [*means household*].

In another example of translation, Amal said:

The soldier works in the Army. The army means aljaish [*army*] OK?

In the above-mentioned examples both teachers gave an Arabic translation just after the English words, which worked as a dictionary for students to learn and understand new words. What can be said here is that the mention of the English word sets up, almost as a dictionary, the new word in the L2 lexicon, and the student is able transfer their L1 meaning across to fill up that new ‘heading’ in their L2 lexicon. This type of use serves, straightforwardly, the acquisition of semantic meaning of content words such as nouns and verbs.

5.3.3.2 Non-native English/ Arabic speaker teachers

Arabic was used more frequently by NNEASTs for this function than for grammar, which is unsurprising as it is easier for NNS of Arabic to do. Both teachers used this

function, although Shereen only used one instance. Lulu used eight Arabic instances to translate from English to Arabic. This may also have been an attempt to attract attention and establish rapport with the students by demonstrating her knowledge of Arabic. Again, it can be said that the use of L1 can serve more than one function simultaneously, becoming a useful strategy for an educator when it is employed. Once, Lulu said:

T: Afnan is very shy so I am going to give her a suggestion **naseeha** [*advice*] or an advice. So what should my suggestion be? I think you should not be shy.
S: Yeah.

In this example, Lulu used the Arabic word **naseeha**, which is a translation of what she said later in English [*advice*]. Interestingly, she started with the Arabic word followed by the English equivalent. This may indicate that she wanted to show the students her knowledge of Arabic or wanted to facilitate comprehension by providing the Arabic translation. Indeed, if shyness was an issue, using the Arabic word allowed the students to understand the ‘topic’ of the conversation, which would prevent Lulu from being embarrassed if she did not know the English word. Being a NNS of Arabic, Lulu may have also felt it more necessary to try and establish rapport with the students and make more of an effort to build a connection, as she did not share the students’ cultural background. However, both native Arabic and NNS of Arabic teachers can use students’ L1 for affective reasons, as L1 helps to create a less formal relationship between teachers and students. However, it might be argued that foreign teachers need to make an extra effort to build such close relationships with students.

Lulu said:

T: So when I give a suggestion or advice I have to use [*should*] and I usually **aady** [*normally*] generally we use words like I think you should do this.

One comment could be added about the above-mentioned quotation: Lulu gave the students an incorrect translation for the word ‘usually’. She was supposed to say (**aadatan**) instead of (**aady**) as the latter has a completely different meaning: **aady** means [*it is ok*] and (**aadatan**) means [*usually*]. This example shows the importance

of being proficient in students' L1 in order to provide correct and accurate L1 translation to L2 words. This could have confused the students later on if they had not recognised the mistake.

In another example produced by the same teacher, the incorrect Arabic translation was used when she said:

T: you know what is mutton, right? You only eat chicken? What else do you eat?

S: Duck.

T: What else, meat?

S: Lamb.

T: You have small goat; you call it **kharroof** [*lamb*]. So that's mutton.

The word (**kharroof**) means 'lamb' not mutton. Providing students with incorrect Arabic translation due to the teacher's lack of knowledge of Arabic may mislead students. The next chapter (Chapter Six) presents students' reactions to teachers' use of Arabic, and this explains why students might prefer Arabic to be used in the NASTs' classes, although they may not find it useful when the teachers are NNS of Arabic.

5.3.4 Attracting students' attention

This function refers to when Arabic instances are used to attract students' attention to the information that the teacher is conveying. The NASTs used Arabic words such as **hena** [*here*]; **ma'aya** [*are you following me*]; **yabanat** [*girls*] to attract students' attention, making sure they were following. The NNS of Arabic produced Arabic words for lexical items in order to attract students' attention to the fact that they knew some Arabic. Justifications for this are provided below.

5.3.4.1 Native Arabic speaker teachers

The NASTs used eight Arabic instances for this purpose. For instance, one NAST, Amal, said:

Open your book on page 95 and do exercise number 2. In this exercise you have sentences, **ma'aya** [*are you following me?*]

In this example, Amal tried to attract her students' attention by using an Arabic word in order to make sure that they were following her and focusing in the class. However, if Amal was using Arabic to communicate that she knew some Arabic, some further research might be needed about why teachers do this. On the one hand, it does serve to show they are also language learners, but, on the other hand, there may be a pedagogic function behind it, such as letting students know that they will be understood if they go off task and start chatting about irrelevant matters, for example.

The other NAST, Rania, said:

T: What do you do inside the house? No one? No one helps? Don't you make your own qahwa [coffee], or clean your room? Almalabis alwiskha meen yeshelha [who washes the dirty clothes]? Do you just go home and sit, eat and sleep?

S: My mother does that.

In this example, Rania found the students quiet and unresponsive. She seemed to be embarrassed at their lack of response and used Arabic here to catch their attention by almost chastising them for their laziness around the house.

5.3.4.2 Non-native English/ Arabic speaker teachers

One NNEAST used Arabic in her classroom to attract attention (seven instances), although her Arabic knowledge was limited. The reasons for this have been presented in previous sections.

Lulu said:

Have you heard of Alaska? It is in the US. Alaska is very famous of extreme climate. Marra [very] cold or marra [very] hot.

In another part of the lesson, Lulu said:

Where are you? You are not a morning person? Hah you don't like morning, to be awake in the morning. I think that is the mushkila [problem]. Some people are morning people and some people are afternoon people.

One reason for classifying the function of the above Arabic instances as ‘attracting students' attention’ is that the English meanings of the Arabic words (**marra**, **mushkila**) used by teachers are common and students know them. This suggests that those teachers who used these common Arabic words wanted to let the students know that they knew Arabic, which might indicate that teachers wanted to show students that, although they did not share their L1, they could still use their language, which might help to establish a closer relationship with them. An equally possible explanation is that the students expected the teacher to speak English only, because of the context and her background. When she used Arabic for a word that they should know in English, this was unusual and unexpected so it might surprise them and therefore attract their attention to focus in the classroom. More importantly, the issue of multi-functionality of L1 instances should be noted here. It has been highlighted earlier in this chapter that some L1 instances may serve more than one function, and this can be seen in the above-mentioned examples. The main function of these Arabic instances was to attract students' attention. However, the sub-function could be to add emphasis to the information given by teachers as in the previous example when the teacher said:

Alaska is very famous of extreme climate. Marra [very] cold or marra [very] hot.

The emphasis here is on the fact that Alaska is very cold and this was done by using the Arabic word marra which could be applied to both hot and cold.

5.3.5 Unprincipled L1 use

This category is used when the teacher mixes L1 with L2 words for no obvious reason and can happen naturally and maybe subconsciously as evidenced in Baeshin (2016). According to Liu et al. (2004), teachers' use of L1 is not principled all the time. Indeed, it is almost impossible to define principled uses of all teachers' L1 instances all the time. This function of unprincipled L1 use is in contradiction to the optimal position about L1 use proposed by Macaro (2001), as this position (discussed in Chapter Two) suggests that the use of L1 should be principled and follow particular guidelines.

However, conceptions regarding the principled L1 use may be credible only from a theoretical perspective because “it is difficult for many bilingual teachers to apply this to classroom interaction daily” (Baeshin, 2016: 345)

Even though teachers' L1 use can be unprincipled on certain occasions, L1 use in EFL classrooms serves as a tool to build rapport with students and to make them feel less anxious, as negative feelings such as pressure and frustration can be alleviated (Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney, 2008). Only one of the native Arabic teachers demonstrated unprincipled Arabic use and recorded 13 instances which comprised 12% of the total Arabic instances across all the observations. It is interesting to investigate these in further detail as, essentially, what ‘unprincipled’ means is that the data is not amenable to the categories employed in the research, and/or the reason for its use was not available to the conscious introspection of the teacher when they completed the questionnaire. However, there could have been some useful pragmatic/communicative functions that such instances served, and further examination could be instructive.

5.3.5.1 Native Arabic speaker teachers

One reason that NASTs used Arabic instances in unprincipled ways is as a result of being bilingual and proficient in both L1 and L2. They may do it unconsciously and randomly because they feel more confident when Arabic is used as they are more proficient in their L1. This may indicate that even if teachers use Arabic randomly or for no obvious reason, such use is still beneficial and useful as it still fulfils a variety of functions. As seen in table 5.2, unprincipled L1 use was only used by one NAST (13 instances). Amal said:

I want you to do number 1 and 2. Here in number 1 we have Jimmy, hena begolik eno [here it says] Jimmy fi [in] reality fi al [in the] sijin [prison] and he gets up at 5 o'clock and he wears haq al prison [prison's uniform, literal meaning of haq related to].

All of these instances are categorised as unprincipled use of Arabic as Amal used a variety of Arabic words and phrases such as long utterances or sentences (more than one word), single words, prepositions and definite articles in her class. This may indicate that she was doing that because she is bilingual and it was natural to switch

between the two languages unconsciously (Baeshin, 2016). The fact that only Arabic native speaker teachers used unprincipled L1 may indicate that it requires being proficient in both L1 and L2 to be able to use Arabic for a variety of uses.

5.3.6 Drawing upon shared cultural and religious expressions

The teachers used L1 instances or expressions that are particularly related to students' culture or religion. Interestingly, the teachers who were NNS of Arabic used Arabic for such purposes more frequently (five instances) than NASTs (one instance). This could be a case of an attempt at rapport building, but it might also be an over-played attempt to integrate themselves linguistically. The NASTs used Arabic more frequently than other teachers as the usage ranged between 2% - 7.3% whereas the usage of Arabic by other teachers ranged between 0.3% -1.5% (see table 5.1). The lower usage of Arabic is probably due to the fact the non-Arabic speakers were not proficient in Arabic. However, the instances they used might have been intended to create a more comfortable atmosphere in the classroom and reduce students' anxiety by using utterances that show shared culture or religion with students. Using Arabic for this purpose is a useful strategy in order to build rapport with students. Such utterances include: **Salam Alaykum** (*peace be upon you; an Islamic greeting*), **Insha'Allah** [*God willing*], **Masha'Allah** [*exclamation when one admires someone or something*]. Some examples are illustrated below. These expressions are used frequently by Muslim people to express gratitude and to praise Allah for his blessings. They would not be translated into English and are deeply entrenched in Arab and Muslim culture. It is interesting to consider whether these count as 'Arabic' expressions or more as religious expressions, because, for example, they are employed by people who are Muslim but are not proficient speakers of Arabic to any degree and can be found used in many Muslim countries where Arabic is not the L1. They may be processed in a similar way to how native speakers of English use 'goodbye' without breaking it down to its old origin of 'God be with you'. There may, then, be a much more cultural aspect to this type of 'Arabic usage'.

5.3.6.1 Native Arabic speaker teachers

One expression was used by a NAST when she said:

For example, you study the first year in college or in university English, and Math which are basics of the next year **Insha'Allah** [*God willing*].

Amal, in this example, was talking to her students about their next year of study at university, as some subjects such as English and Math are basics for them. She used the expression '**Insha'Allah**', as this expression is usually used when talking about something good that one wishes to happen in the future. Although this Arabic teacher used it only once during the observed lessons, it does not imply that she generally does not use it much in her classrooms.

5.3.6.2 Native English speaker teacher

The NAST also used religious expressions in Arabic. Warda said, when she was talking to one of her students:

Fish is your favourite? Aha ok it is very good **masha'Allah** [*Arabic and Islamic expression that shows exclamation when one admires someone or something*].

In this example, the teacher showed her admiration of what her student said about fish by using an Arabic expression (specific to Islam) used when one admires something. As Warda was Muslim, it would be normal for her to use the expression. Her outward linguistic indexation of her Muslim identity may have served to bring her closer to her students via indexing her membership of the same cultural group, supporting the suggestion above that the more religious/cultural expressions have much more than a linguistic role to play in the classroom.

5.3.6.3 Non- native English/ Arabic speaker teachers

Shereen used two Arabic instances that show sharing her religion and culture with the students. At the beginning of the class, she greeted her students with an Islamic expression saying:

Salam Alaykum [*peace be upon you*].

Another instance was used by the same teacher later on in the same classroom:

This is not included in your exam (pointing to a certain page) so we are about to finish this unit **Insha'Allah** (*God willing*).

Using such expressions can help to maintain or build rapport with students as the teacher and the students share the same religion. Despite the fact that they do not share the same L1 but do share the same religion, the use of such expressions by non- Arabic teachers might help to strengthen the relation and establish solidarity with learners, which is what was proposed above.

5.3.7 Humour

Using L1 instances for humour can help to lower the affective filter (discussed in Chapter Two) as it creates a more comfortable atmosphere in the classroom and makes students less anxious (Liu et al., 2004; Cheng, 2013; Sali, 2014). This was the least used function of Arabic in the classrooms observed (4%, see Figure 5.1).

5.3.7.1 Native Arabic speaker teachers

Only one of the NASTs used Arabic for this purpose and in only one instance. When Rania asked the students whether they did anything at home, they remained silent:

T: Do you do anything at home?

Students remained silent.

T: so you do nothing?

Students remained silent again.

T: If I were your mother **Ana asheel alasaya** [*I would use a stick/ beat you*]

Students laughed.

T: So you do nothing?

S: I **aratib almalabis**.

T: Ok so **tiratib almalabis** means she puts her clothes in their place.

In this quotation, Rania was being humorous to encourage students to communicate in the class and respond when she talked to them. She may also have wanted to make

herself likeable and thus strengthen emotional ties with her students. She asked them if they did anything at home but they remained silent. So she said '*I will use a stick*' in Arabic to show that she was not satisfied with the fact that students were lazy and did nothing. Presumably, using Arabic for humour in this example was useful because it made the students respond to the teacher and the teacher encouraged them to go on with the conversation.

5.3.7.2 Native English speaker teachers

Again, only one instance of Arabic being used by a NEST for humour was observed.

Warda said, referring to my presence:

T: Don't worry about Ms. Shams. She is doing research; she is not **mudeer** [manager or boss] or anything like that.

Students laughed.

It is not uncommon that being observed can cause nervousness and anxiety. To reduce these negative feelings, Warda tried to make her students laugh and feel more comfortable while being observed, by inserting Arabic words.

5.3.7.3 Non-native English/ Arabic speaker teachers

For the NNEASTs, humour was also one of the least observed functions of Arabic usage. Only Lulu used it twice in this way when she said:

Now, let's go to problem number 2. Who would like to read? Hanan? Hanan is sleeping today. She is on a different **kawkab** [planet]

Students laughed.

In this example, Lulu was trying to say humorously that one of the students was not following her, as this helped to create a friendly and more comfortable atmosphere in the classroom. Possibly her pronunciation of **kawkab** made them laugh more than the admonishment. After the students had finished laughing, Hanan answered. The use of humour here also served the purpose of getting the students' attention.

In this main section, I have examined in detail how teachers from different backgrounds employed Arabic in the English classroom, considered the extent to which this was done, and attempted to reflect on the reasons why the teachers made the linguistic and communicative choices that they did make. In line with the findings from the literature review (discussed in Chapter Eight) teachers of all backgrounds employed Arabic for a variety of functions even though during the observations the amount of Arabic spoken was limited. Using Arabic for administrative, illustrative, linguistic/grammatical, and attentional reasons was common whereas humorous and unprincipled uses of L1 were less common overall.

Some interesting differences and findings do emerge. Clearly, it has been noticed that there is rarely only one reason for employing Arabic. The teacher might wish to explain some grammar as a main reason but, at the same time, she might wish to control behaviour and/or build rapport. We have also seen instances where the teacher might consider what she, herself, felt or needed when selecting L1, e.g., when the teacher wished to show her vulnerability as an L2 speaker, or did not use Arabic because she did not wish to reveal she was not very competent. This suggests, as was raised in the literature review, that it may not be student proficiency that is at the heart of teacher decisions to use the L1. What is interesting, also, is that expressions which are technically Arabic in origin but, actually, are more like markers of Muslim religious identity, seem to be used by a range of teachers to show in-group belonging, and this might be a way of creating rapport. It is not necessarily the fact that the expressions technically belong to the L1 here, but, what is pertinent is the fact that teachers are exploiting standard linguistic markers of Muslimhood to find ways to bond with students. Finally, it should be noted that Arabic was often employed as a repair or 'back up' strategy (Macaro, 2001) when (often repeated) attempts to achieve things in English failed. In the categorisations chosen for this research, there is no explicit overall function that corresponds to this. It may be worth positing a 'repair/rescue' function, which applies to all the categories used in this chapter. It is certainly something worthy of further study.

5.4 Students' level of proficiency

This section discusses issues related to research question 2, which is:

Does the extent of teachers' usage of Arabic vary according to their students' level of proficiency?

Students' level of proficiency was determined based on whether they were in the beginner, pre- intermediate or intermediate classrooms. However, students at the beginning of the academic year may not have been placed appropriately, and teachers did raise this issue (this is presented in more detail in Chapter Seven).

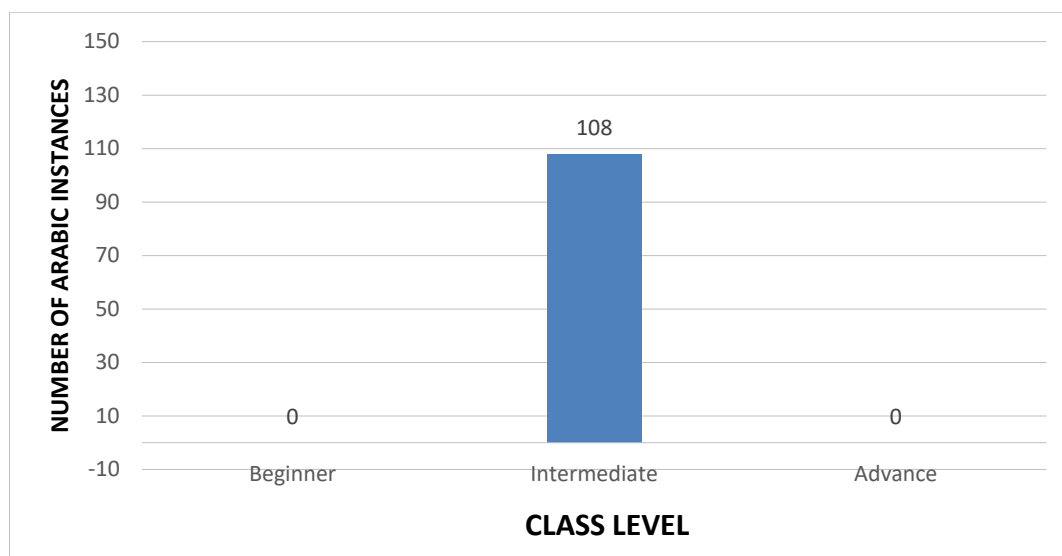
The results obtained from the observations, in contrast to findings from the interviews and questionnaires (see Chapters Six and Seven), suggest that the extent of teachers' usage of Arabic may not be dependent on the students' level of proficiency but may be influenced more greatly by the teachers' L1. There were only two Arabic native teachers, Amal and Rania, in this study, teaching the same pre-intermediate level. Each was observed twice when it was found that they used Arabic in their classrooms to a greater extent than the NNS of Arabic, as reported earlier in this chapter.

This means that the findings of the present study are insufficient to answer research question two due to the reluctance of enough participants agreeing to be observed. It is problematic because it was originally intended to establish whether more Arabic was used with beginner students, but some teachers had very limited Arabic. It is not possible to identify whether they used their full range of Arabic as they were not interviewed regarding the extent of their knowledge. Therefore, it was only possible to quantify the instances and their functions. It was noticed that the beginner-level teacher, Wid, who was observed to have virtually no Arabic, did not use it at all in class, but this may have been very different if she had known some Arabic. In other words, the fact that she did not use the students' L1 was probably due to her own lack of knowledge more than because of their level of proficiency. Nevertheless, just because a researcher might encounter teachers with limited Arabic does not mean we have nothing to learn from teachers who speak/use little or no Arabic in the classroom. Surely, if such individuals ever do use it, then it has to be a special and interesting occasion, and would be worthy of study. Moreover, it is telling that such individuals

do not use any Arabic at all, when they must at least be aware of the cultural and religious markers, and some basic expressions such as hello and goodbye, as these expressions are not linguistically challenging or part of the lesson. Something can be learned by the behaviour of all teacher participants in this study, including what they do not do, as well as what they do. I think that their behaviour and their omissions give good reason to suggest that, consciously or subconsciously, teachers consider their communicative and social needs above the needs of the L2 student, at least sometimes.

As highlighted before (unlike the data analysed from the interviews and questionnaires, see Chapters Six and Seven), with regards to students' level of proficiency, no real difference in the amount of Arabic used was identified. This is most likely because only one beginner class and one advanced class were observed and the rest of the classrooms being observed were intermediate (see table 5.1). This lack of range in the number of classrooms observed and being able to observe some teachers once and other teachers twice (as discussed in Chapter Four) may have led to inconclusive findings with regards to the relationship between Arabic use and students' level of proficiency. Moreover, the other non-native Arabic speakers generally used the students' L1 less as well (see table 5.1) so it is not possible to separate whether this was due to the students' proficiency or the teachers' own inability to use Arabic. The following graph illustrates the total occurrences of teachers' talk in Arabic according to students' level of proficiency.

Figure 5.2 Total occurrences of teachers' talk in L1 regardless of teachers' L1 background



The results of this study suggest that the use of Arabic in L2 classrooms is common practice at the institution under study although the extent of teachers' use of it was not high. Where it did occur, it can be stated that Arabic use had a clear function or set of functions behind it, i.e., it was done for a reason even when it appeared to be used subconsciously by the NASTs. It was noted that all teachers (except two: one NNEAST and one NAST) used Arabic to some extent. However, the frequency and consistency of Arabic use in the L2 classroom differed. NASTs used Arabic in L2 classrooms more frequently than the non-Arabic native speaker teachers. With regards to the functions of Arabic instances used by teachers, they may have served more than one purpose, especially in the case of the non-Arabic- non-English native speakers, who may have felt it necessary to use their limited Arabic to try and establish rapport with the students as they were 'outsiders', as well as using it for pedagogical purposes.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the findings of classroom observations that showed the extent of Arabic used by teachers. In addition, functional categories of Arabic use as well as the frequency of such use has been explained and illustrated by a variety of examples and quotations. The percentages of Arabic used by teachers was not high,

perhaps because of being observed, and the frequency of Arabic usage was influenced by different factors such as teachers' L1 background. From the observations, students' level of proficiency did not seem to be a factor, which differs from the findings from the interview and questionnaire data.

The findings set out in this chapter suggest that there are variations in the frequency and consistency of Arabic used by teachers in the English classrooms. In fact, there is also variation within teachers in different observation contexts, suggesting that, whatever is happening, L1 use might be a choice response to some variable factor that is impacting on the teacher – either internal or external to them (e.g., a feeling of inadequacy, or a behavioural problem in the classroom) despite the official institute policy of prohibiting Arabic. The frequency and consistency of Arabic use by a teacher in EFL classrooms in the particular context of this present study may partly depend on whether the teacher is an Arabic native speaker or a non-Arabic native speaker, as there were differing levels of Arabic used by the NASTs. This suggests that the majority of Arabic native instructors in this institution are more likely to use Arabic in EFL classrooms than the non-Arabic native teachers. However, this is not always the case, as in the current study, one of the teachers who did not use Arabic at all was an Arabic native speaker. Therefore, it is worth emphasising that individual differences are also a factor; some may feel uncomfortable flouting the institute's rules on Arabic usage while others may feel that the benefits of using Arabic outweigh being reprimanded. There is also the likelihood that, as they were being observed by a colleague, they may not have wanted to be observed using Arabic as they may have felt it appeared unprofessional.

It is important to stress that the findings and explanations presented in this chapter should only be applied to the context of the present study and they are not generalisable to another context. In addition, the small sample in this study does not represent the whole ELI. In Baeshin's (2016) study at the same institute, teachers used Arabic more and reported using it especially for lower levels. Moreover, and finally, there are various factors that stimulate teachers in different contexts to use L1 when teaching English (as noted above), even though the amounts used may be minimal. However, it is important to note that when discussing teachers' reasons for using Arabic, I can only

speculate on this, as I did not actually ask them why they used/did not use the L1. The next chapter will explore students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's background and how students responded to teachers' use of Arabic and English.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS FROM STUDENTS' INTERVIEWS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides answers to research questions 3, 4 and 5 (main questions) which are:

Main questions:

3. What are Saudi university students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background?
4. How do students respond to their teachers' use of Arabic?
 - a) What are students' cognitive responses to their teachers' use of Arabic?
 - b) What are students' affective responses to their teachers' use of Arabic?
 - c) Do these responses differ according to students' level of proficiency?
5. How do students respond to their teachers' use of English?
 - a) What are students' cognitive responses to their teachers' use of English?
 - b) What are students' behavioural responses to their teachers' use of English?

This chapter reports the findings from the students' interviews and is divided into three sections. The first section presents the students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background (research question 3). The second section presents the students' cognitive responses (research question 4a) and affective responses (research question 4b) when their teachers used Arabic, and addresses whether these responses varied according to the students' level of proficiency (research question 4c). The last section of this chapter discusses students' responses to their teachers' English use, especially when they did not understand the L2 (research question 5).

Investigating students' responses to their teachers' use of Arabic and English is central to this study. In order to answer research question 3, 4 and 5, 30 students were interviewed and data from the interviews were coded and analysed (as discussed in

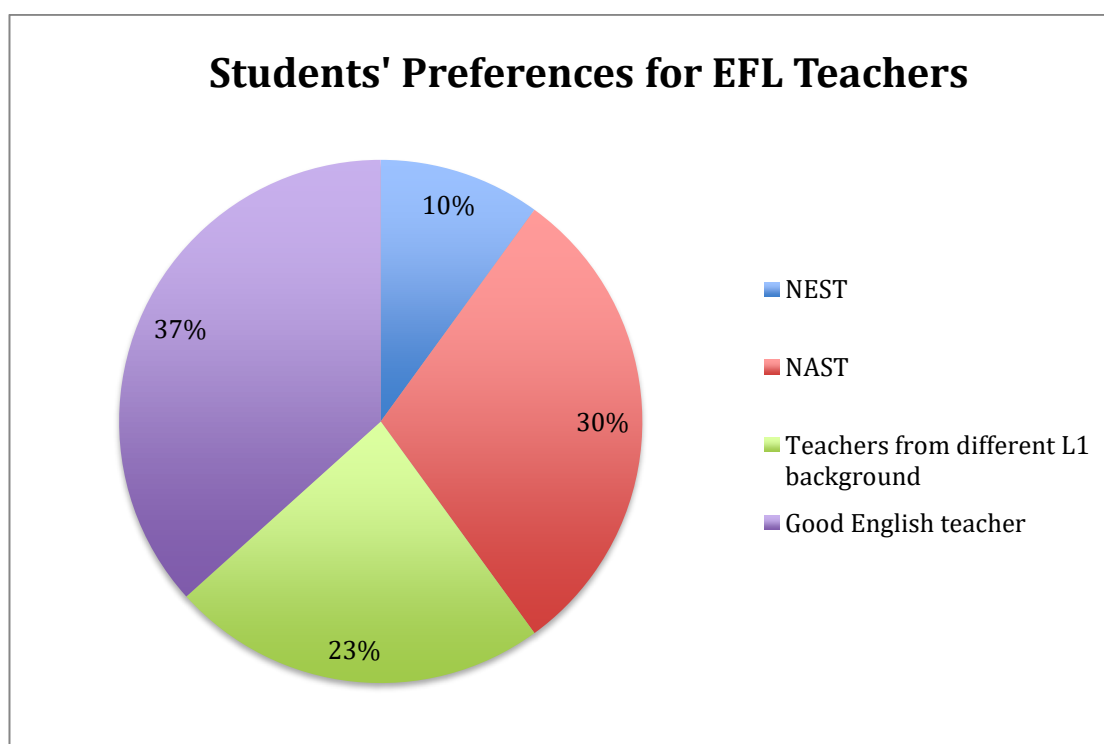
Chapter Four) using thematic analysis which concluded with the major themes identified.

6.2 Students' preference for a teacher from a particular L1 background

This section presents answers to research question 3: *What are Saudi university students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background?*

Students' replies varied and were divided into four groups according to students' preferences. One group preferred to be taught by a native English speaker teacher (NEST) (3 out of 30) whereas the second group preferred to be taught by a native Arabic speaker teacher (NAST) (9 out of 30). The third group preferred to be taught by teachers from different L1 backgrounds (7 out of 30) and the last group did not have a preference for a particular nationality; they preferred a teacher with the features of a good English teacher (11 out of 30). The following pie chart represents the percentages of students' preferences for their EFL teacher.

Figure 6.1



6.2.1 Preference for the NESTs

Students who preferred to be taught by English native speaker teachers (3 out of 30, 10% of students) perceived them as the ideal person to teach English as they were, according to students' perception, a valuable source of new words that reflected a different culture with different opportunities to acquire the L2. Students believed that, as NESTs come from a different culture, their background experiences and attitudes differ from those teachers who are non-native speakers of English. As such, they (the students) were influenced by NESTs in a different way as those teachers are, themselves, influenced by their background, which is reflected in their language when they speak about their own culture and background. For example, one student said:

...we can learn new words from the NEST when listening to her as she comes from a different culture and background so she introduces new words that reflect her culture and background

Similar attitudes were declared by another student:

The NEST is better as she knows more vocabulary than the NAST.

Therefore, learning new words from NESTs was considered a feature that makes them more attractive than other teachers to some students. Another advantage of NESTs is that they come from different backgrounds so they can provide new experiences to the classroom, for instance, when talking about their countries. This was expressed by one of the students when she said:

I prefer the English native teacher as we learn about new cultures when she talks about her country or her experiences in Saudi Arabia and how this differs from the place she comes from.

There is certainly a body of literature (Chun, 2014; Walkinshaw and Oanh, 2014; Benke and Medgyes, 2005) which supports the claim that students generally prefer being taught by a NEST (discussed in Chapter Three). However, this was the smallest group identified in the present study (some perceived disadvantages are discussed in section 6.3.3). What students seem to prefer is a teacher who has the features of a 'good English teacher', which implies that the qualities of a good teacher of English

(whatever they are) may not automatically be present purely by virtue of being a native speaker of English. It is interesting to understand what those qualities might be (discussed in section 6.3).

6.2.2 Preference for the NASTs

The second group of students (9 out of 30, 30% of students) preferred to be taught by a NAST and provided several reasons for that, including sharing the L1 with students making communication easier, shared cultural background and educational experience and the good teaching methods employed by the NAST. These reasons are illustrated below with examples.

Firstly, the NAST was preferred because she shared the L1 with the students which enabled her to communicate with them easily, to introduce difficult words and to explain grammar. One student stated:

I prefer a NAST as whenever we don't understand a point we can stop her and ask... she can use Arabic to explain difficult words and to talk about new topics.

An interesting point is raised by this student as it is not just that the teacher shares the L1. It is that she uses the L1 to explain and discuss, which indicates that students like L1 usage in the classroom.

Another student said:

I prefer an Arabic native teacher because she can understand us and she is close to us.

It is necessary to consider what is meant by 'understand' and 'close'. 'Understand' can mean 'comprehend', but also in Arabic it is often used to mean 'empathise' or 'sympathise'; the latter interpretation suggests a preference for a shared background or culture. 'Close' may also refer to cultural closeness as well as linguistic closeness and in Arabic the translation of 'close' would be more likely to portray this meaning. The interviews were conducted in Arabic so the student was likely to be referring to the sympathy and empathy that arises from a shared culture in this context.

Another advantage of the NAST was related to students' personal issues, such as explaining excuses for being late or absent. Students preferred the NAST as they felt able to express themselves about anything, whether related to the lesson or not. One student commented:

Even when talking about personal things not related to the lesson, the Saudi teacher is better as I can explain why I was absent or why I did not do the homework.

Another student agreed, saying:

We also need to communicate with her apart from the lesson when talking about personal issues. For example, I was late once for the class but I could not explain the reason to her. We need Arabic at times like these but our teacher does not speak it at all.

Furthermore, this group preferred the NAST because of the shared educational background. Students in this group believed that she was aware of her students' weak English background so was more understanding than teachers from other backgrounds. One student stated:

Teachers other than Arabs do not understand our poor background in English. They say how students at university level don't know these basics.

Another student agreed with that comment by stating:

The Saudi is better because she has been through this before so she can understand us.

Their use of particular teaching methods is another reason some students said they preferred a NAST, as one student said:

I prefer the NAST because her teaching methods are better and more organised... She tries her best to make us understand. She uses pictures and drawings and other varieties of methods to make sure that we get what she is saying.

These findings suggest that some students preferred a NAST because they shared the L1 and express themselves about personal issues in their L1. They also felt that the NAST's teaching methods were good, and that she understood that they were weak in English. As discussed in Chapter One, the teaching and learning of English in Saudi Arabia (especially in state schools) covers only the basics of English, and it is first introduced in the last year of primary school. The same syllabus that covers the basics in English is taught when they are in high school. This means that the majority of students graduate from high school with a weak background in English. Interestingly, 9 of the students interviewed referred to their weak background in English and suggested that this was due to their schools' system with regards to English learning and teaching, which may explain why some students preferred a NAST to teach English as they could communicate with her more easily.

6.2.2.1 Preferences for not being taught by a Saudi teacher

Although two of the students expressed a preference for being taught by NASTs, they made it clear that they preferred not to be taught by Saudi teachers in particular. One of those who disliked being taught by a Saudi teacher commented:

I prefer any Arabic native teacher excluding the Saudis... I prefer not to have a Saudi teacher because I don't know... maybe she believes that as she is Saudi, so she has the right to teach at the university more than anyone else. She comes late to classes and does not follow the rules of the university. Other teachers like Tunisians or other non-Saudi nationals are more committed to their work, come on time and are more organised.

The other student who did not prefer to be taught by Saudi teachers said:

...the Saudi teacher who teaches me at this level is very boring and her way of teaching is very traditional. I had the same bad experience in level 3 as the teacher was Saudi as well and I used to fall asleep in her classes.

Those students had particular perceptions about Saudi teachers and other teachers based on their own experiences. No generalisations can be made based on two students' experiences and, of course, this is applicable to all perceptions students have towards

their teachers, whether they are positive or negative. However, this may suggest that student preferences toward NASTs also vary depending on the nationality of the teacher. The students above also suggested that it is not only the teachers' background that influences students' preferences for a particular teacher from a particular background, but also the teaching methods employed. It also suggests that using different teaching methods is an advantage only of the NASTs for some students. As suggested by one student, her preference was largely influenced by the teaching method/strategy employed by these teachers and did not relate to the amount of Arabic used. However, no other data from this study supports this view and no generalisations can be made based on only two students' experiences. Nevertheless, this section hints at a key finding of this thesis. Essentially, I started to notice a common theme that, very often, it is not the nationality or the language proficiency of the teacher that counts. What counts seems to be 'being a good teacher' (discussed in section 6.3). Some teachers might have poor pronunciation or vocabulary, but are perhaps preferred for other reasons, e.g., having a novel and interesting interpretation of the prescribed syllabus and teaching style. This was not the aim of the original research but emerged from the data and therefore requires comment.

6.2.3 Preference to be taught by teachers from more than one L1 background

The third group (7 out of 30, 23% of students) preferred to be taught by teachers from more than one L1 background, both a NAST and a NEST, within one course. The reasons were similar to those provided by the students when stating their preferences for only a NAST or NEST (see sections 6.2.1 and 6.2.2). For instance, regarding the skills taught, students preferred the NEST when teaching speaking and listening while they preferred the NAST when teaching grammar. As one student said:

I prefer the NAST when teaching grammar because some grammatical rules such as past simple or past continuous confuse us so I prefer the NAST in grammar teaching. In speaking, I am with the NEST but she has to know how to make us understand and make sure that we do understand.

Similar to some of the students discussed in section 6.2.2, I assume that when preferring a NAST particularly when teaching grammar, this student believed that NASTs are better at explaining grammar than the non-native Arabic teachers. This

seems to be in agreement with the findings of the classroom observations (see Chapter Five). It was found, indeed, that NASTs used Arabic to explain grammar more often than other teachers did, as they were better placed to make cross-linguistic comparisons. This may support the use of L1 in L2 classrooms and the use of Arabic to explain grammar.

Another reason for students' preference for being taught by two teachers within one course was that the NAST could play the role of mediator.

I prefer both Arabic and English native speaker teachers to teach me within one course because the NEST is good in providing us with a lot of new words while the NAST is good when we can't express ourselves in English so we can speak Arabic with her. Regarding the English native teacher, we can't communicate with her easily but the Arabic native teacher can do that.

It may be reasonable to assume that this student was of the view that the NEST may be richer in vocabulary when compared to the NAST as they had been immersed in English for a greater part of their lives.

In the present study, students in this group based their preference for their teachers on the items taught, for example, vocabulary or grammar. They believed that grammar is taught better by a NAST, as they felt it was easier for an Arabic speaker to explain things in the L1. On the other hand, as discussed earlier, NESTs were preferred to teach skills like listening or reading where new words were introduced.

6.2.4 No preference for a particular L1 background

The last group did not have any preference for any particular teacher from a particular L1 background. Rather, they believed that there are qualities and advantages of the English teacher regardless of their L1 background. This group represents the biggest group as 11 out of 30 students (37% of students) provided different criteria for the good or ideal teacher regardless of nationality. Here is one example from the current study where a student declared:

I do not prefer a specific nationality because it depends on the teacher's personality and ability to give the lesson regardless of the teacher's background.

The clear suggestion from this student is that personality and ability is what makes someone an effective teacher. Here, the student is fleshing out what 'a good teacher' might be. A key question for this research was to investigate how students relate to the linguistic background(s) of teachers but, more and more, the suggestion developed that increasing attention needs to be paid to what makes 'a good teacher'. This will be discussed in section 6.3.

With this suggestion in mind, students interviewed in the study actually identified several qualities which make a good or ideal teacher, regardless of nationality. For instance, teachers' use of Arabic is one advantage that some students valued in their English teacher, as one said:

So I think an English or Arabic native teacher is good or teachers from any nationality as long as they use some Arabic.

This student suggested that having knowledge of Arabic and the ability to use it is preferable regardless of the teacher's nationality, because the teacher's use of Arabic is necessary to explain the English.

Another student was in favour of some, but not excessive, Arabic. She stated:

Look, the Arabic native (Lebanese) teacher who previously taught me used to use Arabic a lot but I did not learn from her, but this Malaysian teacher uses very simple and few Arabic words and I fully understand what she's trying to teach.

From the quotations mentioned above, it is clear that teachers' Arabic use is preferable for some students to some extent, regardless of the teachers' background. In other words, using some Arabic is seen as desirable whether used by an Arabic native teacher or not. Surprisingly, in the second quotation it was apparent that although the Lebanese teacher spoke Arabic fluently, she did not manage to convey the meaning to students. What all of this suggests is very illuminating. It does not matter if a teacher

is a native, or even a very proficient speaker of the students' L1. What is emerging is a preference for teachers that can use some Arabic if and when it is appropriate for aiding students in their learning. This is similar to Macaro's optimal position (2001).

Furthermore, five of the students in this group referred to the variety of teaching methods employed by teachers as an advantage regardless of the teachers' nationality. For instance, one student said:

Honestly speaking, teachers' L1 background does not matter for me. What is really important is using a variety of teaching methods and techniques such as using pictures, repeating, giving examples and using simple language and any other techniques that help me to understand the lesson.

Another student agreed, saying:

So it does not matter if the teacher uses Arabic or not. What matters is the teacher's way of teaching and her teaching methods and her ability to make you understand.

These quotes suggest that using different teaching methods is another factor that helps to increase comprehension and get the message across to students. When the teachers use different teaching methods, these students obtain a better understanding of what they are taught. Therefore, to them, the teacher who uses different teaching methods and techniques, and is able to make students understand, is the ideal teacher no matter what their L1 background is.

6.3 Students' perceptions of the good English teacher

What follows in this section is a description of the findings that emerged during the analysis of the data. These findings brought to light another dimension to that envisaged when developing the research questions. It has been established that students seem to be much more concerned about having 'a good teacher' when considering differences between NESTs and NNESTs. However, integral to the idea of a 'good teacher' is how, and how much, Arabic is used in the classroom.

Three themes emerged from the data with regards to students' perceptions of a good teacher. The themes discussed below represent the perceptions of the same four groups

of students discussed in the previous sections. These themes are: teachers' accent, teaching methods, and communication barriers due to cultural differences between the teacher and students.

6.3.1 Teachers' accent

Accent can be defined as "the cumulative auditory effect of those features of pronunciation that identify where a person is from, regionally or socially" (Crystal, 2003: 3). Another definition was provided by Simpson (1994: 8) as a "spoken variety of language" which normally includes aspects other than pronunciation, such as lexis and even syntax, and possibly pragmatics. Accent is a crucial factor that provides characteristics of individuals about level of education, class, ethnicity and social identity (Lippi-Green, 1997) and sometimes the region of origin.

As identified earlier, the teacher's accent when speaking English is another criterion that some students consider when evaluating a 'good teacher'. Some preferred inner circle accents either the American accent or the British accent (discussed in Chapter Two, section 2.3). However, the students have very little awareness of the variety of regional accents and dialects in the UK and USA.

When students expressed their preference, they were basing this on the standard BBC pronunciation and the American accents heard in Hollywood movies. They do not have much exposure to inner circle accents that fall outside this. As already discussed in Chapter Two (see the end of section 2.3), one of the criticism to Kachru's model is that it failed to consider the different varieties of English that represent the variety of accents and dialects (Bruthiaux, 2003) so it is not surprising that students also have such a narrow view of inner circle accents. Although this might be considered narrow-minded given the raised awareness of World Englishes, the students might hold the perception that these accents are superior because many look to certain English native speakers (American and British) as a role model for the good English teacher. One reason for such a preference is to acquire the American or British accent (i.e standard BBC pronunciation and the American accents heard in Hollywood movies) when speaking English.

This issue has been discussed in detail in Chapter Two. For example, one student said with regards to the British accent:

I prefer English native speaking teachers, specifically British teachers, because I want to acquire a British accent, get the correct and accurate language from its people.

Another student taught by a British teacher commented on the American accent:

I prefer English native speaking teachers, specially teachers with American accents. Regarding our teacher now, her accent is not clear sometimes but I can still understand, because the British accent is difficult to understand.

When talking about accent, it is not necessary to refer to teachers' L1 background or nationality. It is possible to acquire an accent associated with the variety of English spoken in a country where you do not hold nationality. That is to say that a non-native speaker of English may not always have British status, but may, for example, acquire a particular accent through exposure to that particular accent. This means that students preferred the particular accent itself regardless of who used it. In other words, any teacher from any background may have a British accent, for example, and that indicates that a particular accent may not be associated with a particular nationality as it may sometimes be acquired.

Students' attitude and preference to be taught by a particular teacher from a particular background may also be influenced by the teachers' accent. Despite differences in the background and nationality of teachers, 6 students said they wanted their teachers to use accents in accordance with their preference, such as the use of an American accent, though the teacher may be a NAST. Students' negative viewpoints about teachers' accents, other than the British or the American accents, reflected a wider view embedded in Saudi society.

One student said regarding teacher's accent:

I like the American accent as I hear it in movies. I like it when my teacher has this accent although she is not a NEST.

Furthermore, some students perceived that certain accents are not ideal. In the opinion of 13 of the students, NESTs are better than non-English/Arabic native speaker teachers just because of the accent. (It should be noted that students may be confusing 'accent', which indexes region and class, with pronunciation which is just about the intelligibility of sound. I did make the distinction, however). Students perceived English native speaker accents (a national standard such as 'BBC English') to be superior to that of other nationalities. The following quotes illustrate a prejudiced view towards the Pakistani and Indian teachers. For instance, one student said:

Regarding teachers like Pakistanis and Indians, their pronunciation is strange and not clear sometimes.

Another said:

The teacher was Indian. With all my respect, some of the Indian teachers only studied on a six-month language course and they have been recruited to teach English⁷. When my teacher speaks, she combines English and *Indian*⁸ together which is very difficult to understand although it is English...when she writes I can understand but when she pronounces I can't. Her pronunciation was very weird.

From these quotations, it is clear that students are more familiar with certain accents (American and British for example) than other accents. They are less positive towards certain strong accents because they perceive them to be not the ideal or standard English that they are used to and they find them difficult to understand. From the findings of this research it can be deduced that the students desired teachers to use accents preferred by them as they perceived the accent (British or American) used by teachers helped them understand what they were taught. Teachers with Pakistani or Indian accents were not preferred by students, as they found it difficult to understand

⁷ Most Indian educated professionals tend to be bilingual. It is highly unlikely such teachers have only studied for a short time. What students say may not reflect the general pattern as regards teachers from this country.

⁸The student used the term Indian for the language spoken

what the teacher said. This suggests that the teacher's accent appears to impact on the students' attitude toward them.

6.3.2 Teaching methods and techniques

A teaching method refers to any technique that teachers use in the classroom in order to deliver the information to students. Teaching methods in the EFL classroom include using pictures, drawings, synonyms, body language and any other technique that helps students understand and engage in the classroom.

Students referred to the lack of experience and teacher training that some of the teachers had. For instance, one student declared:

From my point of view, I think it is important to manage recruitment and employ teachers who are qualified enough for the job. Some Saudi teachers who are just bachelor degree holders start teaching just after graduation with no experience or good background in teaching methods. This is regarding the Saudi teachers.

Another student described her teacher, who, although experienced, was dull:

Although the NAST who teaches me seems to be an experienced teacher, her class is very boring... she did not use any good teaching methods to make the class interesting. She only depends on the textbook, reading from it and asking us to reply. This is a very traditional way of teaching.

This student suggested that it is not only the teachers' educational background that influences the students' preferences but also the teaching methods and techniques employed. It appears that using different teaching methods is an advantage of the NEST to some students as 6 out of 30 agreed that non-Saudi teachers used good teaching methods and techniques that made the English classes interesting.

One of the students stated:

... I think that the teaching methods are different when the NEST teaches me
...When she teaches and explains, honestly, in everything she is different... I

found a big difference. With her, I fully understand grammatical rules and I get what she says.

The student did not elaborate on how the teacher was different but one could surmise that she was more innovative and tried a variety of techniques as she did not have recourse to Arabic as a first language and the students were of low proficiency. Both teachers and students in this study noted that more Arabic is needed for teaching lower levels. Of course, other students presented a different view, but there were still 20% of students who indicated that good teaching methodologies were important to them. However, just because some students like the methods they are accustomed to does not mean that these methods are pedagogically sound, nor that the students would not come to prefer other methods if they were exposed to them or whether those methods would be seen to be effective.

Another student compared NASTs to NESTs by saying:

NASTs are good but there is limited time to cover the curriculum. I don't only want that. I want more than passing exams. I want to expand my knowledge and learn through the different techniques that NESTs use.

This is in part about the syllabus, but all teachers are constrained by the syllabus. This student was highlighting the fact they felt there were things they could only learn from a NEST. These students' statements emphasise that the teaching techniques matter as much as the teachers' background when it comes to students' preferences toward a teacher. Interestingly, these students seemed to share a belief that NESTs employ more effective teaching techniques than the NNESTs. However, they did not define what they considered effective teaching techniques or methods, and they were not asked about this, which maybe is one of the limitations of this study. Students did not identify which teaching methods that the teacher used were effective but, according to their opinions, it could be said that the effectiveness of these methods differs depending on the teacher type (nationality, accent, and personality) and the level of proficiency of student (beginner, intermediate, advanced) in a given language classroom.

6.3.3 Communication barriers due to cultural differences

According to Brown (2000), learning an L2 requires some element of acquiring a second culture. For Brown (2000), switching between L1 and L2 leads the learner to compare and contrast the values of the two different cultural groups. Culture, here, is considered inseparable from language, and proponents of this view consider that students need to know something about the target culture in order to successfully acquire the target language (Brown, 2000). Kramsch (2009), reviewing literature on the subject, moved away from this stance of duality and discussed the idea of a ‘Third Culture’ in language learning which is not bound by L1 versus L2, C1 versus C2, us versus them or the self-versus others. This third space is a place borne out of the tensions between the L1/C1 and L2/C2 and a space where students can retain their own meanings while communicating using the target language. From the student responses, it does not seem that a third space has evolved in some of the classes, as some students would rather not have a NEST teacher to avoid these tensions. As Corbett (1999) noted, people choose the ‘culture’ they feel most at ease with. The degree to which people feel at ease with what is seen as alien or different may vary, hence the responses of some of the students towards the NEST teachers.

Not knowing enough about the students’ culture may lead to the teacher applying her own cultural norms to a situation and perceiving the students as lazy rather than the product of the educational culture they have been brought up in. These cultural differences, according to some students, sometimes cause miscommunication between teacher and students. Therefore, some students preferred not to have the NEST teacher because of cultural differences (e.g. different educational background) and because of not being able to communicate with her. It appears that the “Third culture” (Kramsch, 2009) has not been established here, and there is conflict between the student’s culture and that of the NEST teachers’. Two students noted:

Teachers other than Arabs do not understand our poor background in English. They say how students at university level don’t know these basics. Some of them get angry when we ask about points they assume that we should know already. When those teachers do that, we never try to ask and we keep silent

to avoid being embarrassed. Non-Arabic native teachers should be aware of the bad English teaching we experienced in high schools.

Another said:

Regarding NESTs, they come from a different culture and assume we know everything. They don't know that we graduated from high schools with a poor English background. One of them says that she has taught students from different cultures and they know these basics. I am a student and I am still learning and do not know everything. Some Arabic native teachers understand this fact and they know the education system and English teaching in Saudi Arabia.

These students may be suggesting that the educational background of teachers meant they were not familiar with the way English was taught prior to university. The NEST's response to the student's proficiency in English may impact on students' preference for teachers, as the teachers may think the poor proficiency is due to lack of study rather than being taught badly. This may also suggest that the students realised that the Arabic native teachers shared a similar background with them (i.e, culture, language, educational background) and that they were able to understand them better and more easily than the non-Arabic speaker teachers. The fact that Arabic native teachers share the same L1 with learners may allow students to express themselves about personal issues, such as explaining why they were late or absent for the class. NASTs can understand better than teachers who are non-native speakers of Arabic that their Saudi students are weak in English. This issue was raised throughout the interviews. Of course, the willingness to communicate in such circumstances depends not only on language; one may be more comfortable opening up to someone 'closer' to one culturally, than someone more 'distant', just as one might be more comfortable sharing a problem with a family member than an acquaintance. It could be argued that some people find it easier to talk to strangers but this was not evidenced in the interview data.

Moving from students' preferences to their EFL teacher's L1 background examined in the first section of this chapter, the next section presents the results of the main focus

of the chapter: students' cognitive and affective responses to teacher usage of Arabic and English.

6.4. Students' cognitive and affective responses to teachers' use of Arabic

In order to answer research question 4, *How do students respond to their teachers' use of Arabic?* students were asked both how they thought and how they felt about their teachers' use of Arabic. As explained in Chapter Two, learning strategies are the particular approaches employed to aid comprehension, learning, or remembering new material (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 1). These can include affective and motor skills as well as cognitive strategies (O'Neil and Spielberger, 1979: xi). However, this study is concerned with the cognitive strategies. Some of these cognitive approaches can be observed while others cannot, as the initial stages are the mental processes required before the strategy can be identified.

In this study, student responses were analysed in terms of cognitive strategies including thoughts (what mental strategies they use), and behaviours (what verbal or physical strategies they use in the classroom). Here, a learner cognitive strategy can be a cognitive response, the terms being used interchangeably. Thus, when a learner uses a strategy, this is a response to input from the teacher, or what the teacher says. These strategies are discussed below.

6.4.1 Students' cognitive responses to teachers' Arabic use

Cognitive strategies are responsible for the language processes in the brain. As defined in Chapter Two, the term 'cognition' means the thought process or ability to know something (Oxford, 2011: 46). Cognitive strategies are the mental stages or procedures that are used to manage both "linguistic and sociolinguistic content" Wenden (1991:19). In this section, students' cognitive responses to their teachers' use of Arabic are discussed.

Students were asked about what they thought about when the teacher used Arabic. The recording of the sections of class(es) where the teacher used Arabic was played back to let the students comment with regards to what they thought at the time (see Chapter Four for more details).

They were asked in the interviews:

Your teacher sometimes used Arabic and sometimes used English only to explain a certain point. When she used Arabic, what did you do at that time at a cognitive level? What happened at that time in your mind, what you were thinking?

The students can be divided into two categories with regards to their answers to this question. While some students clearly understood what was expected of them and were able to recall their cognitive responses, others did not understand what was being asked about the mental processes or were not aware of their cognitive responses, so commented on their teachers use of L1, as is discussed later in this section.

The students who responded appropriately to the questions provided a variety of answers, as can be seen below.

For example, one commented:

When Arabic words are used I memorise them in English at once and they stick in my mind.

A similar response was provided by another student:

When she said these words more than once I could recall them and then never forget.

The following table presents the cognitive responses to teachers' use of Arabic from those students who understood the aim of the question.

Table 6.1 Students' cognitive responses to teachers' use of Arabic.

Cognitive responses	No of students who used that response
Comparing English and Arabic grammatical rules	26
Memorising new words instantly.	23
Making connections between Arabic and English	22
Thinking of English synonyms/ equivalents	13

The most frequently produced cognitive responses were comparing English and Arabic grammatical rules (26), memorising new words (23), and, generally, making connections between Arabic and English (which could overlap with the two other strategic responses just mentioned). What can be seen here is that the most frequent responses concern certain linguistic matters such as vocabulary and grammar, and are sometimes complex.

Students' replies in the interviews presented above and other similar replies showed that they reacted cognitively to teachers' Arabic use. The students did not always elaborate on how exactly they responded cognitively to their teachers' use of Arabic, although stimulated recall did provide some indication of the cognitive processes they were going through. Furthermore, they recognised the positive effects or benefits of teachers' Arabic use.

The majority of students (26) used it to "*compare English and Arabic grammatical rules*". For example, students illustrated that when Arabic was used to explain grammar, they made comparisons in their minds between English and Arabic grammar, which helped them to understand and remember the English. They also said that the act of comparison and contrasting helped to avoid making errors.

Their cognitive responses also indicated that Arabic helped to "*memorise new words instantly*" (23 students). Sometimes I used stimulated recall to identify the new words from the class. Students elaborated that when the teachers translated the new words into Arabic, they were able to memorise these words instantly as the Arabic equivalent helped them to do so (this will be further discussed in Chapter Eight). When I asked them to give examples, they were unable to come up with specific items.

Other students (22) responded that whenever the teacher used Arabic, they "*make connections between Arabic and English*". However, the students did not specify exactly what was meant by this; it could have meant differences as well as similarities. One possible aspect that should be highlighted is that the structure of English and Arabic sentences is different. For instance, adjectives in English are used before nouns while in Arabic they are used after.

In addition, teachers' use of Arabic stimulated them "*to find English equivalents/think of English synonyms*" (13 students). Again, no specific examples were provided. However, I surmise that those students heard the Arabic and automatically translated it into English as a matter of course.

On the other hand, some of the students provided more generic answers regarding their views on teachers' Arabic use rather than responding to my question about what their thinking processes were when responding to specific instances. They gave their views on teachers' Arabic rather than the cognitive response that I sought, which suggests that they interpreted the question differently. I did try and restate the question but did not indicate that their responses were not what I was looking for. For example, one student from a pre-intermediate class replied:

Arabic use helps me to make sure that I understand the point correctly so it helps to make that point or grammatical rule stick in my mind.

The student above has discussed how the use of Arabic helped her to check her understanding but not the thought processes she went through in response to its use.

Similarly, another student from the intermediate class commented on how the use of Arabic helped her understand a grammar point rather than discussing how she responded cognitively:

It facilitates understanding as she uses Arabic just when we don't understand, like present perfect for example. We didn't learn it in the previous levels so it is new for us and when she uses Arabic at that point we know it and learn it.

One pre-intermediate student complained about the use of Arabic in the classroom saying:

I feel bored, very bored when she uses Arabic. I feel I am in an Arabic class. I hope I can attend a class where all my classmates are involved and engaged in the lesson. I hope there is a rule in the class that Arabic is not allowed with classmates and the whole lesson is in English. In that case we may improve

our English. Some teachers do that. Yes, some of them do, but I tried that before one teacher did that before for only one week and then she stopped.

However, again she was discussing how she felt about the use of Arabic, complaining it made her feel bored rather than commenting on what happened cognitively.

Another view was expressed by a student who commented on her NAST:

I think that when Ms. [...] does so, she wants us to understand as much as possible. She explains very well.

Here, the student commented on her teacher's use of Arabic as a strategy to make students understand. Indeed, another student expressed her view about Arabic use being helpful for passing examinations. She said:

When the teacher uses Arabic, I can understand more and therefore my chance to pass exams increases.

It can be inferred from the example above that some students believe that Arabic facilitates understanding and comprehension. They think that Arabic is important in the English classroom as it is helpful for them to pass examinations and its use is a good strategy that should be followed. In addition, other students (9) said the use of Arabic helped to check their comprehension of the input, while another six said "*it helped them organise their thoughts*". Furthermore, some responded that teachers' Arabic use "*makes me remember points*". Here, they meant they could recall from previous lessons. In addition, they meant that when the teacher repeated these points (e.g. new vocabulary, grammatical rule) more than once in Arabic, they remembered the point when they heard it again "*and then never forget*".

On the other hand, some negative views on teachers' Arabic use were revealed. As the examples from this study show, three students thought that teachers' Arabic use in the class was "*confusing*" and made them "*feel lost*" and "*it makes the class look like an Arabic class*". They thought that Arabic should be limited and used as little as possible. This suggests that students and teachers recognise the importance of using L1 in the L2 classroom but do not support its overuse. This is consistent with Macaro's (2001) optimal use (discussed in Chapter Two) which posits that the use of L1 in L2

classrooms should be principled following certain guidelines. Interestingly, regarding reactions to the non-Arabic native teachers, three students noted that *the mistranslation was misleading* and two *laughed at the teachers' accent, especially when it was strange*.

As discussed earlier, some of the replies of participating students in this study presented above indicate that they expressed their views more than commenting on their actual cognitive reaction to teachers' Arabic use. This is most likely due to their lack of awareness of their cognitive response, lack of recollection or because teachers did not use much Arabic in the English classes. Another reason might be that students interpreted the terms employed (thinking processes, cognitive processes) differently. I did try and redirect the students but was provided with similar types of answers. This will be discussed further in the limitations section in Chapter Nine (see section 9.3).

6.4.2 Students' affective responses to teachers' L1 use

As discussed in Chapter Two, foreign language anxiety can be facilitative (Alpert and Haber, 1960; Scovel, 1978; Bailey, 1983; Young, 1986) when it helps learners to be able to deal with the debilitating anxiety and turn it to be positive and therefore improve students' performance. In addition, affective factors (e.g. motivation, self-confidence, attitudes) are related to second language acquisition as such factors are essential for L2 acquisition to take place (Krashen, 1985). Students with low anxiety have a low filter and those with high anxiety have a high filter, so little input is converted to intake because of such high filter (Du, 2009). According to Gass and Selinker (2008) anxiety affects language learning as high levels of anxiety might hinder language learning, while low levels could help.

When students were asked about their affective reactions to teachers' Arabic use, students from different levels of proficiency were mainly "*comfortable*", "*relaxed*", "*relieved*" and "*happy*" and all of these feelings were associated with students being able to understand when Arabic is used. One student from level three (pre-intermediate) said:

I feel more comfortable when Arabic is used so I can understand. When the whole class is in English and I come across something I don't understand I feel nervous and anxious.

The way this student sets out her comment suggests that she is comfortable and this plays a role in her understanding. Of course, it may also be appropriate here to consider a mix of cognition and affect whereby the student learns, so is comfortable, so learns more, and feels more comfortable. This indicates that the more students are at ease in the classroom, the more they learn.

Another student, from level four, stated:

I feel relieved when the teacher is Arabic native. I really feel comfortable. She can understand us and sympathise with us... I feel worried before I come to class because our teacher does not speak or understand Arabic. For example, I could not discuss my grade in writing because of that. It is hard to deal with her.

This comment is, again, about feeling comfortable and the fact that the teacher here is unable to speak Arabic makes the student feel nervous and causes difficulties in communication.

Although the same student felt relieved when Arabic was used, she commented on how she felt when it was used too much. She said:

I feel comfortable and relieved as my own language is there although sometimes I feel confused when Arabic is used too much. But I still feel comfortable as I know and understand what the teacher is talking about. But it still makes me get bored when she translates each sentence or word.

The student appears to contradict herself, claiming to be both confused and bored, and comfortable, when Arabic was used too much. Too much Arabic here may have meant that the focus of the lesson was lost.

Another student expressed the same view about the limited use of Arabic by saying:

I feel comfortable when the teacher used Arabic but it has to be limited use because I want to improve my English.

So those students linked their feeling of being comfortable with limited Arabic use. Although the students do not explicate it, and, indeed, may not be aware of it, there may be an implicit distinction in this comment between Arabic for a pedagogical purpose, and, perhaps, Arabic in the sense of a shared cultural/linguistic background as and when needed. There is a recurring theme here that some students have a sense of what they feel to be an optimal use of L1 in the classroom (Macaro, 2001).

Although some students thought that teachers' Arabic use helped them to feel comfortable and relaxed, five students from level four 'intermediate' felt relaxed and comfortable when Arabic was *not* used; one said:

I feel more comfortable when English only is used.

Similarly, two students from level four 'intermediate' feel perplexed, and upset or annoyed when Arabic was used. One of them commented:

I feel comfortable when English only is used. When she uses Arabic I feel upset as I don't want to lose what I have learned so far.

These students seem to be suggesting that the use of English only by teachers adds value to their proficiency level. At the same time, they felt that the use of Arabic by teachers impacted negatively on the learning of English. Their view supports the virtual position, described by Macaro (2001), of totally excluding L1 from the classroom. I believe that the students' own view seems to support the assertion that learners should be extensively exposed to comprehensible input of L2 to ensure mastering of L2 (Krashen, 1982). The students seem to think that their exposure to Arabic may impede their mastery of English.

Interestingly, only two students from level three 'intermediate' felt uncomfortable when Arabic was used extensively, as they assumed that it was an English class and no Arabic should be used. One of them said:

I don't like Arabic being used a lot. It should be very limited. When it is used a lot I feel uncomfortable.

From these examples, it can be seen that teachers' Arabic use plays a double role with regards to affective filter. For some students (21 out of 30) it helped to keep it low by making them feel more comfortable, happy and less anxious whereas for others (9 out of 30), Arabic makes them uncomfortable and more anxious which raises affective filter. During the interviews, students were asked to describe how they felt, so comfort became a recurring theme. It is not so surprising that they should focus on feeling comfortable when they spend 15 hours in the English classroom a week.

6.4.3 Students' level of proficiency in relation to students' responses

With regards to research question 4 (c), *Do these responses differ according to students' level of proficiency?* it can be seen that students' responses to their teachers' use of Arabic seem to be closely connected to their level of proficiency. Almost all of the students (28 out of 30) thought that more Arabic is needed with low proficiency students. One student from level two (elementary level) said:

I think that our level of proficiency is the key factor that stimulates teachers to use Arabic.

Another student from level three (pre-intermediate level) commented:

We need more Arabic because we are not proficient in English.

Therefore, for lower level students, Arabic native teachers who used Arabic are preferable to Arabic native teachers who avoid using it, because these students feel that teachers should use Arabic whenever needed. This seems to be in agreement with Macaro (2001) who suggested that L1 could be used systematically, which represents his optimal position (discussed in Chapter Two) with regards to teachers' use of L1 in L2 classrooms. However, the observations did not provide any evidence that teachers used more Arabic with the lower proficiency classes, although reasons as to why this might have been the case are discussed in Chapter Eight.

Interestingly, one student from level three (pre-intermediate) believed that more Arabic is needed with advanced students because some difficult terminologies need to be translated into Arabic. She said:

Because levels 1 and 2 are very easy, we can understand without Arabic; the material was almost the same as we had in high school, basics. But level 3 and 4 are more difficult. The higher level we are, the more Arabic is needed.

Students classified themselves as being with low levels of proficiency in English even if they were at level 3 or 4. This may suggest that they are aware that their level of proficiency in English is low due to different factors, such as limited English teaching at schools and being placed at the inappropriate level at university. Teachers were aware of that, as they commented on this issue. This is discussed in more detail in Chapter Seven. In addition, this would suggest that there is a lack of confidence in themselves about their level of proficiency in English, which would potentially create a negative affective filter. This means that such anxiety might indicate that teachers' use of Arabic is likely to be helpful in terms of making them feel better.

6.5 Students' responses to teachers' talk in English

With regards to research question 5, *How do students respond to their teachers' use of English?*, students were asked what they do (observable cognitive response) and how they think (non-observable cognitive response) in response to their teachers' use of English, especially when they did not understand the L2 (English) input. As discussed in Chapter Two, these strategies can be either observed (e.g. behaviours) or unobserved (thoughts, mental actions). It is important to emphasise that although observable strategies used by learners can be seen or observed, they first start as mental processes or, as Cohen (1998) suggested, they are 'consciously selected' by learners. These strategies are discussed below.

6.5.1 Students' cognitive response to teachers' English use

When students were asked about their cognitive responses to their teachers' use of English, they commented on the mental processes they went through at the time. I asked them about this in order to identify whether they were aware of their own

cognitive responses and to compare strategies students used when the input was in English in comparison with the strategies they used when the input was Arabic.

One of the reasons that some students may not have recognised their cognitive processes when teachers used Arabic was that during the observed lessons the amount of Arabic used was limited and it was these observations that were used in the stimulated recall exercise. However, from the comments and views expressed, it is evident that more Arabic is used normally than was observed at the time and they were responding to the use of Arabic in general rather than focussing on the Arabic used during the observed lessons. When students were not sure about how to recognise their mental process when teachers used Arabic, an attempt was made to elicit responses in a different way by asking them about teachers' English use (research question 5) to stimulate them to think carefully and identify what was happening in their minds.

The following table summarises students' cognitive responses to teachers' use of English.

Table 6.2 Students' cognitive responses to teachers' use of English.

Cognitive response	No of students who used that response
Mental Translation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trying to find Arabic translation/ equivalent in mind (28). • Constant translation to Arabic (7). • Guessing in Arabic (5). 	28
Trying to work out the meaning in English from the context.	16
Finding an English synonym.	6
Focusing on English only and not thinking of Arabic	5
Avoidance	2

Presenting these responses in the table is based on starting with the most frequently used by students and these strategies emerged from the data. In the table, we can see

that the most common cognitive responses to the teachers' use of English are related to mental translation, though expressed slightly differently in the interviews (28 students), for example, trying to find an Arabic equivalent (28), constant translation to Arabic (7) and guessing in Arabic (5). As many of the learners were beginners or pre-intermediates, it is quite reasonable that, either deliberately or otherwise, their first response would have been to produce a cognitive response in their own language in an attempt to make sense of what was happening. Some of the examples below show that the students employed more than one strategy; if one strategy failed they moved on to another.

Students were asked:

Your teacher sometimes uses Arabic and sometimes uses English only to explain a certain point. When she says something in English that you do not understand, what do you do at that time at a cognitive level? What happened at that time in your mind? What went through your mind?

(This question was asked in a variety of ways to ensure that students understood the question correctly. The process was explained in detail in Chapter Four).

6.5.1.1 Mental translation

The most frequently used strategy was mental translation (28 students). Almost all the students said they used mental translation strategies, although they expressed this in a variety of ways as can be seen in Table 6.2. For instance, students from the pre-intermediate class referred to using translation by finding an Arabic equivalent. One of them said:

I first try to focus on what the teacher says and try to understand myself by finding the Arabic equivalent. If I still don't get it I use the dictionary.

Similar responses were illustrated by another two students from the elementary class as they said:

I first try to understand what she is saying using Arabic (in my mind). Then if I can't understand I ask her to explain again in English using synonyms.

I first try to find an Arabic equivalent. If I cannot find any, I interrupt the teacher and ask her, or sometimes I wait till I go home to translate the difficult words myself.

Interestingly, these students first responded cognitively to their teacher's English use by trying to find an Arabic equivalent (cognitive response). If this attempt failed, then they used another strategy (behavioural response, discussed in section 6.5.2) when they used the dictionary or asked the teachers to explain using English synonyms. They made an attempt themselves, tending to focus on the teacher's input and understanding it using Arabic. If the students were still unable to understand, they tried to gain insight through the use of a dictionary, and other language-related information such as word class (e.g. noun, verb) or by asking the teacher for clarification.

Another two students from the pre-intermediate class also thought of Arabic equivalents. They said:

...at that time I think of an Arabic equivalent to the English words that my teacher used.

While she is talking in English I try to translate to Arabic in my mind.

More students discussed how they related the English input to Arabic. This cognitive response was explained by other students:

I try to relate that to Arabic. For example, if she says a word in English and explains it in English I try to find an equivalent in Arabic and relate it to that.

I try my best to understand that difficult word as I might have come across it before, or by thinking of any other equivalent in Arabic that is similar in meaning.

I recall everything I have learned before that is related to what she is saying in order to help myself understand. I also try to relate that to Arabic.

As another form of mental translation, seven students referred to constant translation into Arabic. Two students from the intermediate class said:

Whenever the teacher uses English, I immediately translate into Arabic in my mind. I always do that. Actually, I translate instantly.

... I try to translate it in my mind. If I put in a sentence and cannot get the meaning, I translate it into Arabic. I translate it instantly.

Again, these students used translation mentally. They did that instantly which may indicate that translation into Arabic happens automatically in students' minds.

Guessing in Arabic was another form of mental translation (eight students). Although the students did not refer to translation explicitly, their attempts to guess in Arabic when the teacher used English indicates that they tried to translate into Arabic by guessing.

One student said:

I try to think carefully about words that I don't understand as I might have come across them before. Then I try to guess their meanings in Arabic.

6.5.1.2 Working out the meaning from context

16 students first tried to guess the meaning from the context. For instance, two students from the intermediate class stated:

I can understand it from the context or from the English explanation.

I try to understand it in its context.

Interestingly, if they failed to comprehend the meaning from the context, some students applied another strategy, as these students explained:

I feel lost. I try my best to understand that difficult word from the context as I might have come across it before or by thinking of any other equivalent in Arabic that is similar in meaning.

I try my best to understand. I try to figure out the meaning from the context but if I can't I ask the teacher to explain it again in English and if I still cannot get it I ask her to say it in Arabic. Arabic should be the last solution. I prefer not to use it.

These students first tried to focus on the English input only, the first by recalling her previous knowledge of English, trying to work out the meaning from the context before using a mental translation strategy. The second student is similar to the first and tried to work it out from the context but then asked the teacher to explain in Arabic. This, according to the second student, was the last resort and I did not see evidence of this during the observations. However, students may have felt uncomfortable asking for explanation in their L1 in my presence, or feared being told off by the teacher.

Students gave answers that reflected their awareness of their mental process in moments when the teacher was explaining in English but they could not understand a certain point. Interestingly, some students' responses indicated that Arabic did come into their minds to some extent. This shows that they sometimes used their L1 automatically, even if the teacher did not use it. It could be argued there was some level of unconscious L1 use in the students' mind even when it was not recognised as having taken place. I also believe from my own experience that students both with low proficiency and high proficiency in the L2 often use Arabic, though unconsciously, and an inability to acknowledge it (because it cannot easily be introspected upon) does not mean it does not occur.

As noticed in table 6.2, the least frequently used strategies were: finding another English synonym (six students), focusing on English only and trying not to think in Arabic (five students) and avoidance (two students). Some examples from students' responses are provided below.

One student from the pre-intermediate class used a variety of strategies, one of which was finding an English synonym. One said:

I try to find another word in English that is close to the one the teacher has said.
Or I ask her to use examples in English to simplify what she is explaining. I then try to think of Arabic equivalents. I ask my friends for clarification.

This student seems to insist on focusing on English only by attempting to find an English synonym or asking for explanation in English only. If this failed, she used Arabic by looking for equivalent or asking friends for clarification.

Similarly, another student from the intermediate class also focused on English only as she stated:

I try to think of English equivalents. Or ask the teacher to do that in English.

Five other students tried to focus on English only and not to think in Arabic. They stated:

I try to understand myself without Arabic interference because I want to develop my English. If I fail, I resort to Arabic.

When the teacher says a difficult word in English and asks students to translate it into Arabic, I always think about it in English only and ignore the Arabic equivalent.

During the English class, I try not think in Arabic. I try just to think in English.

Another student from the pre-intermediate class explained her response to the teacher's use of English by saying:

I feel that there is something wrong with my comprehension because she sometimes tries to give an English equivalent or explanation to that point but we still can't get it. Some teachers can't give it right. So it is better to make drawings to illustrate some points.

The student here suggested a teaching technique to help students understand a certain point. I then asked: *Did your teacher use these techniques?* The student replied:

Once or twice only, not much. But Ms. [...] has perfect English so she skips a lot of new words assuming that we already know them. This really affects us negatively.

Although this student described her teacher as having "perfect English", the student was unhappy and felt inadequate, even though, theoretically, a teacher's good English is associated with successful acquisition for L2 learners. However, a recurring theme emerging from the data is that it is not necessarily the use or proficiency in English in the classroom itself, but the teaching ability and techniques of the teacher that seem to make the largest impact. Moreover, the teacher here clearly failed to assess the needs of the students and understand their abilities and confidence levels (due to cultural differences or educational background, discussed in section 6.3.3), which led her to assume knowledge that was not there, making students feel inadequate.

Only two students from the elementary class replied that they used avoidance strategies. They said:

I did nothing. I just skip that and do not study it for the exam.

I never try to study it. I just delete it.

In this case, the students may have decided that they would concentrate on what they understood well for the examination, either hoping they would do well enough in other parts of the examination to compensate for this lack of understanding or possibly hoping it would not be part of the examination.

As seen in some of the previous examples, some students said they used other strategies (behavioural strategies such as using dictionaries), although these strategies were not always seen during the observations. These are discussed in the following section.

6.5.2 Students' behavioural responses (what they do) to teachers' English use

As stated earlier, one reason for examining students' cognitive responses to teachers' English use is to identify the strategies the students employed when the input was in English, to compare this with the strategies the students used when the teacher used Arabic and to understand their reaction to the teachers' use of Arabic. The responses may provide insights into how Arabic can be used more effectively in the classroom.

Some students' replies include (behavioural) strategies they followed or wanted their teacher to use when the teacher used English only or when student needed to understand a certain point. The students considered these strategies or techniques useful for facilitating understanding. These strategies are observable (as opposed to internal cognitive strategies) and are summarised in the following table:

Table 6.3 Students' strategic responses to teachers' English use

Strategic (observable) responses	No of students who used that response
1. Using dictionaries (paper/ electronic).	28
2. Asking the teacher to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • explain again in Arabic. (22 students). • provide more clarification in English (e.g. giving examples, using synonyms) (19 student). • use drawings or pictures (16 students). 	27
5. Asking classmates in Arabic.	19
7. Taking notes.	8

The most frequently used strategic responses are social strategies, including those that involve asking for help either from the teacher or other students. The majority of the students said they asked the teacher to explain in Arabic, possibly to save time (Baeshin, 2016), although only eight of the students said they asked for examples from the teacher. Maybe in this case, they felt it would take up too much class time, especially if the examples were in English.

This study is about student reactions and responses to teachers' uses of Arabic. To understand that, their mental processes were investigated in terms of the strategies students used when English was used by the teacher and there were still problems with comprehension despite strategies employed. We can see that, clearly, students often need clarification, and it looks like some of those cases relating to meaning can often

be complex and vague, and so this would suggest that there is some kind of language-related gap, which could be filled by some well-thought-out Arabic use to support L2 learning.

According to the responses in the interviews, the majority of the students (28) reported that they used dictionaries when they did not understand a word or a phrase.

One student from the pre-intermediate class reported:

I open the dictionary and translate difficult words that I don't understand. The teacher has told us to do that whenever we face a word that we don't understand.

This is because it is a conscious strategy that learners use to respond to a difficulty they may face when learning new L2 words (Macaro, 2003). As highlighted by Macaro (2003), students should be allowed to use dictionaries as a strategy in order to aid comprehension. However, he added that teachers should help students to evaluate to what degree it is worth finding words in dictionaries.

Often the students said they used a combination of strategies, when one was inadequate to aid comprehension. As we have seen in section 6.4.1, one student commented on that issue, saying:

I first try to focus on what the teacher says and try to understand myself by finding an Arabic equivalent. If I still don't get it, I use the dictionary.

More than one strategy was used by another student who stated:

I did nothing, just keep silent or asked my classmates. I sometimes can understand if she provides examples. I also try to guess the Arabic meanings to what she says.

Of course, there is nothing in these responses to rule out the possibility that students can, and likely do, employ multiple strategies at times, e.g., using a dictionary and asking a classmate if they still do not understand.

Students tried to decipher teachers' English talk by using several social strategies; these strategies have been discussed in Chapter Two. As seen in table 6.3, social strategies involve asking the teacher to explain again in English or Arabic, give examples, use pictures or provide drawings. In addition, asking classmates is another social strategy that 19 students used to be able to understand the English lesson.

Taking notes while the teacher was teaching was also a strategy that helped students to understand what the teacher had taught them in the class and to be able to recall what they had learned later (8 students). Important words and meanings can be written down as notes that can be checked, analysed or memorised later on by the students.

One student from the pre-intermediate class said:

Whenever the teacher says something I do not understand, I write it down and check it later after I go home.

It was noticed that some students' strategies, used in response to their teachers' English use, involved referring to Arabic many times. For instance, they either used a dictionary to translate to Arabic (28 students), asked their classmates in Arabic (19 students), or asked the teacher to explain in Arabic (22 students). This suggests that they value their L1. As it is the main part of their language repertoire, it cannot be banished from their minds, even when they do not share the same L1 with their teachers. Many of the students interviewed said they perceived Arabic as a tool to facilitate interaction and increase comprehension among students (see section 6.4.1).

The findings about students' strategic responses to teachers' English use in the present study appear to be in line with those of Chamot and Kupper (1989) who conducted a three-year descriptive study that investigated learning strategies used by learners when studying foreign languages. They identified various learning strategies, similar to those used by the students in this study, such as resourcing (e.g. using dictionaries), note-taking, elaboration (e.g. relating new information to prior knowledge), or

questioning (asking for clarification, explanation, rephrasing, or providing examples) about the learned material). The main focus of Chamot and Kupper's (1989) study was learning strategies and their investigation was extensive, detailed and deep. However, the present study examined students' responses to teachers' use of Arabic in particular and students' responses to teachers' use of English, especially when they did not understand the English input. Therefore, investigating learning strategies (students' responses) in this study is mainly related to teachers' Arabic use, so interpretation and discussion of findings are focused on, and related to, the issue of L1 use in L2 classrooms unlike other research studies that examined language learning strategies in general.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented findings from students' interviews in order to address research questions 3, 4 and 5. It first explained students' preferences regarding teachers from a particular L1 background (research question 3). My expectations were that more students would prefer a NAST due to their lower levels of proficiency at the institution, as discussed in the introduction to this thesis, together with the fact that both teachers and students mentioned that more L1 was necessary for lower level students. However, it was found that more than one third of the students (37%) preferred to be taught by a teacher with the attributes of a good English teacher, irrespective of their nationality or background, which clearly indicates that the main preference was for good pedagogy and professional skills rather than a particular native language status. Teaching methods and techniques, accent used by teachers, and flexibility of communication between student and teacher were considered to be important for students with regards to their preferences for their English teacher. These findings are in line with many other studies and this will be discussed in Chapter Eight.

In addition, students' cognitive responses (research question 4a) and affective responses (research question 4b) when their teachers used Arabic were explored in this chapter. It was then identified whether these responses varied according to students' level of proficiency (research question 4c). The findings suggest that there are a number of common cognitive responses employed – mainly for comparing English and Arabic grammatical rules, memorising new words and (generally) making

connections between Arabic and English. It is clear that the most frequent responses concerned linguistic matters, sometimes quite complex, as will be discussed in Chapter Eight. It became obvious that some of the students interpreted the question differently and gave opinions on the teachers' use of Arabic and its benefits rather than their cognitive responses.

Finally, how students responded to their teachers' use of English (research question 5) especially when they did not understand the L2, was reported. Students provided various responses that demonstrated their language learning strategies: cognitive strategies (e.g. mental translation, working out the meaning in English from the context) and behavioural strategies (e.g. using dictionaries, taking notes). As far as cognitive responses are concerned, the most common response was that the students tried to use mental translation (e.g. finding Arabic equivalents in their own mind). Other strategies included finding English synonyms and avoidance.

In terms of the behavioural strategies, using dictionaries was the most common. In addition, asking a teacher to explain again in Arabic, and asking for general clarification were also very common. I did not observe this in the classroom but student responses given in the interviews identified these strategies. Possible reasons for why this might be the case are provided in Chapter Eight

A number of interesting points emerged during the course of this research. It is clear that it is not just the English proficiency of the teacher that matters to the students, but the notion of what makes a good teacher is emerging. Furthermore, some of the responses showed that the students had an opinion on how the L1 was used in the classroom and what they considered too much or too little. Whether this coincides with Macaro's optimal use will be discussed in Chapter Eight. Cultural closeness of some staff was raised and the question of whether or not a teacher was 'a good teacher' began to emerge.

It is also clear that there may be some theoretical/conceptual/methodological concerns about how the students understood and responded to some questions, particularly with

regards the nature of cognition. These points are addressed in more detail in Chapter Eight, where the pertinent over-arching results of the thesis are brought together. The next chapter explores whether or not teachers' views on their use of Arabic coincide with those of their students.

CHAPTER SEVEN

FINDINGS FROM TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRES

7.1 Introduction

The current chapter focuses upon research question 6 (follow up question):

Follow up question:

6. To what extent do the teachers' views on their Arabic use coincide with students' views of it?

This chapter relates to what has been presented previously with regards to students' responses about teachers' use of Arabic as expressed in the semi-structured interviews (see Chapter Six). Teachers were given open-ended questionnaires to complete to provide qualitative data in order to identify the extent to which their views regarding teachers' use of Arabic coincided with those of their students. This information is considered useful in terms of understanding the complexity of the issue of L1 use in L2 classrooms. I analysed the statements provided by the participating teachers to determine the relationship between their views and how the students answered with regards to their cognitive response to their teachers' use of Arabic. The students were not asked the same questions but from their responses, it was possible to compare teacher and student views.

Identifying the extent to which teachers' and students' views coincided regarding teachers' use of Arabic has a variety of purposes from a pedagogical point of view. It is clear from the data (from classroom observation) that the teachers mainly used Arabic for explaining grammar and translation. The students discussed their cognitive responses to this in the interviews, and this information could assist teachers to see how effective students perceive L1 use in terms of learning. Moreover, they can see how students utilise this in their learning strategies. If the majority of students had not found L1 use useful or had not utilised it, then the findings would provide an indication to teachers that they should adjust their teaching practices. The results can also show

areas where principled use of Arabic in the classroom could be used more effectively to enhance the learning process and lead to improved communication between students and teachers. Furthermore, this research can help identify any misconceptions students have about learning the L2 and areas that may require further discussion (Varshney and Rolin-Ianziti, 2006).

As discussed in Chapter Three, it has been found from various studies that many EFL students believe that L1 use in the classroom enhances their learning process (Auerbach, 1993; Butzkamm, 1998; Schweers, 1999; Burden, 2001; Macaro, 2001; Miles, 2004; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Kavaliauskienė, 2009; Liu, 2010; Kafes, 2011; Alshammari, 2011; Afzal, 2012; Bhooth et al., 2014). The present study involved seven teachers, who were also observed in the classroom; one NEST, three NASTs, and three NNEASTs, who were all given questionnaires in relation to their opinions on Arabic use within the EFL classroom. The following table shows the number of teachers, their anonymised names, their nationalities and their L1s:

Table 7.1: Participating Teachers' Nationalities and Native Languages

Teacher number	Teachers' names	Teachers' nationalities	Teachers' L1
1	Amal	Saudi	Arabic
2	Rania	Saudi	Arabic
3	Sona	Saudi	Arabic
4	Warda	South African	English
5	Wid	Pakistani	Urdu
6	Lulu	Indian	Urdu
7	Shereen	Malaysian	Malay

All of these teachers worked in Saudi Arabia, and had first-hand experience of endeavouring to advance Arabic speaking students' levels of English (see Chapter Four). It was expected that the use of Arabic in EFL Saudi classrooms would be understood through the analysis of the questionnaire statements. Moreover, it was

intended to establish to what extent teachers shared the same perceptions that students had in order to negotiate a more principled use of Arabic in the classroom (Macaro, 2001).

7.2 The extent to which teachers' views on their Arabic use coincide with students' views

Five themes emerged from the teachers' responses (see table 7.2); firstly, students' level of proficiency in English and the need to use Arabic and secondly, affective filter and Arabic use. Thirdly, students' preference for their teachers' nationality was a common theme provided by teachers who identified the teacher's nationality as a factor in the student's acceptance of Arabic use in the classroom and its perceived benefit to teaching. Fourthly, humour in the classroom environment was noted consistently to be a valuable tool that could enhance the EFL learning procedure and acceptance of a teacher, as this can relieve an element of the students' nervousness. Lastly, different teaching techniques or methods employed by teachers could also determine, or help to minimise, the need to use Arabic. The following table presents these themes.

Table 7.2 Major themes emerging from teachers' replies

Themes
1- Students' level of proficiency
2- Affective filter and Arabic use
3- Students' preference for their teacher's nationality
4- Humour in the classroom environment
5- Teaching techniques or methods

Discussing these themes helps to recognise the extent to which teachers' views on their Arabic use coincide with students' views.

7.2.1 Students' level of proficiency

Regarding teachers' views about their use of Arabic, all seven teachers agreed that there is a strong relationship between the need to use Arabic in the classroom at specific moments and the students' level of proficiency, and, in particular, that more Arabic use is required with beginner students. Accordingly, this is shown to be related to the level of discomfort that the teachers judge the students to feel when they understand less of the language. One NAST, Rania, said:

I think this depends on the level of the students. If you work with weak students, you can use Arabic but not with the whole class. In case you have a weak class, I think there is no way at least at the beginning. We should try to facilitate things to them and if none couldn't [understand], Arabic is recommended ... if we have science students and even intermediate, we hardly use Arabic and sometimes never at all during the whole module.

It can be deduced from this statement, that the teacher felt that Arabic can be used in the classroom in order to make the students feel more comfortable with the teacher. Indeed, another teacher (the NEST, Warda) wished that she had the capability to use certain Arabic words when necessary with low proficient students, as she stated:

If I had some Arabic knowledge I would have used it for the lower level students. However, I don't see the need to use Arabic in 103 and 104.

It is noted from this statement, with reference to the four learning levels of English in the ELI (101 beginner, 102 elementary, 103 pre-intermediate and 104 intermediate), that this second teacher confirmed what the previous teacher had stated. They both believed that the use of Arabic is most beneficial at entry stage to the L2, whereas at the more proficient stages, the class can be directed entirely in English (the higher levels of 103 and 104; a discussion relating to proficiency within classes follows shortly in this section).

Likewise, a NNEAST, Lulu, stated:

At times Arabic is effective, especially while dealing with lower levels.

Meanwhile, another NNEAST, Shereen, added:

... with below-average learners, Arabic use is kind of a pleasant surprise, and I can see them literally relax a little more in class. With advanced learners I have almost never had to use Arabic... but most of these advanced learners would not approve [of] Arabic use.

The above examples indicate that more Arabic use is deemed to be required with students whose level of proficiency in English is low, as teachers from different L1 backgrounds assert the importance of how the students' L1 can make them more comfortable and connected with the teacher. In fact, even those teachers whose Arabic knowledge was very limited promoted the use of Arabic in the classroom as a method to enhance the learning experience for low-level EFL Saudi students

Therefore, as a result of the findings of the current study and studies carried out by other researchers, it can be concluded that the proficiency level of students in English actively affects the amount of L1 the teachers use and acceptance of Arabic use in the EFL classroom. As suggested above, when addressing Warda's thoughts on student levels, importantly, it is essential to highlight the point that there is a difference between "weak students" and students whose level of proficiency in English is low. Consequently, even in a beginner class it is possible to have strong students, who understand what is being taught and demonstrate learning, which would result in a reduced need for L1 spoken explanations, alongside weak students, who lack the cognitive powers or the motivation to effectively learn the L2. This was illustrated by a NAST, Amal, who explained what is meant by "advanced students" as she stated:

... What I mean by advanced students; those who are really advanced in English not those who are placed as advanced because we do have these cases.

This teacher meant by saying "these cases" that within every classroom at the ELI, whether beginner or advanced, there are students whose level of proficiency is high and others whose level of proficiency is low. This is due to the ELI's procedure for placing students according to their level of proficiency, which results in placing students in the inappropriate level.

It is also evident that students' responses to their teachers' use of Arabic appeared to be closely linked to proficiency. Almost all the students (28 out of 30) felt that more Arabic was necessary when teaching low proficiency students (see Chapter Six). Therefore, these students would rather have had NASTs who used Arabic than NASTs who avoided using it, because they felt that teachers should use Arabic whenever required. This idea of using L1 whenever required is also echoed by the study conducted by Varshney and Rolin-Ianziti (2006), which compared students' and teachers' views of L1 use in the classroom and found that, across the languages being studied, students and teachers saw it as a necessity for teaching lower level students. This finding also hints at Macaro's optimal position (2001) of judicious use of L1.

Some students classified themselves as having low levels of proficiency in English even if they were at level 3 or 4. This may suggest that they are aware that their level of proficiency in English is low because of the inadequate English language teaching in schools and of being placed at the inappropriate level at university. Once they finish a module, they move automatically to the next level. However, the examinations have not proven to be a good indication of whether they are ready to progress. Teachers were aware of that, as they commented on this issue in the questionnaire. In addition, this would suggest that students lack confidence in themselves about their level of proficiency in English, which could potentially raise affective filter. Such anxiety might suggest that teachers' use of Arabic is likely to be helpful in terms of making them feeling better.

With regards to the question of to what extent the students' views coincided with those of the teachers with respect to L1 use for lower proficiency students, there was general agreement between teachers and students. Teachers said they were confident that it was only at a lower level of proficiency that students would learn better with additional use of Arabic. When a student advanced to a more intermediate or advanced stage, then both the teachers and some of the students agreed that it was better to use only English within the EFL classroom.

7.2.2 Affective Filter and Arabic use

Another major theme that emerged from the teachers' replies is that there is a positive relationship between teachers' Arabic use and students' low affective filter (6 out of 7 teachers).

For instance, three NASTs (Amal, Rania and Sona) suggested that students' affective filter is lower in a teaching environment where Arabic is used. The fact only three teachers mentioned this does not mean others did not think this, as this was an open-ended questionnaire and other items may have come to their minds. In particular, Sona stated:

The class can be very frustrating and can lead the student feeling left out, which consequently could create a lot of negativity on their part that could demotivate them... I have seen students feeling happy and comfortable when Arabic is used.

This teacher used Arabic in her class in order to motivate students and make them feel positive. When a student feels happier, and their comfort levels have been increased, there may be a greater incentive to learn English and improve their level to a stage that will require a minimal use L1. Likewise, Amal agreed with Sona, and said:

Weak students feel very happy and satisfied and of course responded well.

Hence, it is speculated that when a student's L1 is integrated into the teaching process, it provides a greater level of comfort in the classroom environment. Sona thought that Arabic use is positively related to students' affective factors being low especially with students whose level of proficiency in English is low. Similarly, the NEST, Warda, believed that Arabic use decreases the students' filter, as she stated:

Students feel less afraid and happier when I use Arabic. However, even students realise that learning through English as much as possible is more meaningful and builds more confidence...I use Arabic to cut the foreign language anxiety and to build rapport with students, because I believe that the emotional and personal relationship you have with students are very important for their achievement and success.

This NEST highlighted the importance of students' affective condition during the English classes because considering emotional development and enhancement with the teacher helps to develop students' "*achievement and success*" and can positively contribute to the overall learning process.

Nevertheless, as the next section shows, it is not purely the use of Arabic that has been noted by the teachers to affect these learning filters. There is a strong perception among teachers that students have specific views in relation to the nationality of their EFL teacher, which could ultimately affect their learning process and potentially raise the affective filter. With this in mind, let us turn to what can be learnt from a discussion of student thinking with regards to teacher nationality.

Students were specifically asked to describe their affective responses to their teachers' use of Arabic. As discussed in Chapter Six, the majority of students at all levels of proficiency at the ELI reported that they mostly associated positive feelings with being able to understand when Arabic is used. However, not all the students felt this way. Nearly a third claimed that the use of Arabic makes them feel uncomfortable and more anxious, which raises the affective filter. This may be related to how they perceived their level of language ability and the fact that using Arabic in the classroom is seen as a necessity for lower levels by both students and teachers. Perhaps they felt that the fact the teacher used Arabic meant their proficiency was low.

The majority of teachers and students agreed that L1 use has a positive impact on lowering the affective filter. Yet, nearly a third of students said it raised it. Teachers cannot assume that using Arabic will make every student feel happier and more at ease, and, maybe, there needs to be some negotiation as to how much, and how, Arabic is used in the classroom.

7.2.3 Students' preference for their teacher's nationality

With regards to the students' preferences for a teacher, it can be seen from the teachers' replies that they are aware that students have varying preferences about the nationality of their EFL teacher. Hence, this relates directly to Chapter Six that found inconclusive results regarding a majority student perception of teacher nationality preference. Some teachers think that students prefer a NEST and suggested different reasons for this

conclusion, such as different teaching methods used by those teachers, as well as the inevitable increased exposure to the L2 that a NEST would deliver. Indeed, this was noted by some students in Chapter Six.

One NEST, Warda, stated:

Students believe native teachers are better because our teaching methods are less teacher centered and more fun.

Hence, it is one perception that teaching methods of NESTs develop a more receptive learning environment for the students, as the students generally become the main focus of the class. This finding is in line with themes raised in other chapters; we have seen that students and teachers both raise the issue of ‘good’, or at least ‘different’, teaching. The nationality of the teacher is not as prominent as previously thought.

Additionally, one NNEAST, Shereen, stated her belief that students do not prefer to be taught by teachers who know Arabic very well, regardless of nationality, as she mentioned:

They prefer not being taught by those who know Arabic well. They think this will make it an Arabic class.

Similarly, a NAST, Amal, stated:

Students at the ELI consider teachers’ nationality and they do pay attention to that. For example, advanced students (what I mean by advanced students those who are really advanced in English, not those who are placed as advanced because we do have these cases). Really advanced students have a preference for English native teachers whereas beginner students have a preference for Arabic native teachers or those who speak Arabic.

Amal provided some reasons for students’ preference as she said:

For advanced students it is a cultural thing as they perceive an English native teacher to be good in English and enjoy chatting with her. Beginners prefer Arabic teachers because they can use the advantage of using Arabic when they want in order to explain something to the teacher or ask her about the meaning of a word in English for example.

The three teachers (Warda, Shereen and Amal) linked students' preference for their teacher's nationality to students' proficiency, and their statements about students' preference did not relate to the opinions of all students. This shows a mismatch between the teachers' and students' preferences. Thus, it can be concluded that the teachers' and students' preferences are not always congruent. The teachers held the belief that highly proficient students prefer English native speakers to become their teachers, whereas low proficiency students prefer Arabic speaking teachers. This, to some extent, relates to the findings in Chapter Six on students' perceptions, as some students agreed on what teachers said about students' preferences for teachers' nationalities. This perception is in agreement with the factor discussed earlier that more Arabic use is required with students whose English proficiency is low.

With regards to students' preferences for teachers' nationality, approximately one third of the students preferred to be taught by a NAST, as they commented on the inability to understand teachers who are NNSs of Arabic. As shown in Chapter Six, some students struggle to develop a rapport with a non-Arabic teacher, and consequently fail to communicate and construct relationship bonds, which can inhibit enhancement of the learning process. It was also stated previously by the lower proficiency level students that this failure to communicate was detrimental in creating understanding between the teacher and students, and was compounded by a lack of cultural awareness. This idea of constructing relationship bonds based on shared culture is also seen, as two out of every three students stated that Arabic native speaker teachers would be their preference from the perspective of cultural relevance and not having to explain divergent norms.

As was shown by the students during their interviews, the actual nationality of the teaching professional within the EFL classroom environment is a contributing factor to the acceptance of the teacher by the students. However, it must be noted that Chapter Six determined that nationality was only one aspect as approximately 1 in 3 students stated that it was the level of teaching that defined their acceptance, and not the nationality.

When the opinions of teachers and students are analysed and compared, it becomes clear from the students' and teachers' responses that both believe the nationality

of an EFL teacher affects how students ultimately react and develop, as a teacher's background and culture will be clearly different, which consequently may affect the students' academic progress of English language development. As a result, the analysis of the reported answers shows that Arabic native teachers, who obviously speak L1 and are able to use it when necessary, are preferred by some students. However, this does not equate to the students' acceptance of, and preference for, Arabic use in their learning process. In fact, throughout the three main findings chapters of this thesis, time and again, in one form or another, the increased prominence of general teacher quality emerges, although teachers in this study asserted that students' considered their teachers' nationality as more important in the Saudi EFL classroom.

Despite this opinion, teachers still held the belief that certain techniques could counteract the preference of a teacher's nationality or the level of proficiency, as was also remarked upon by the students (see Chapter Six), such as incorporated humour or different teaching methods. As we have seen, many students have also said that good teaching techniques are more important to them than linguistic or nationality factors. Nevertheless, some remarks were made regarding nationality preferences and the fact remains that there will always be some students who have some preference regarding nationality. Further research is required, but working with this may be part of a longer-term study that is needed in the Saudi EFL context to look at perceptions of teacher nationality, and consider how any misunderstandings, prejudices or difficulties might be dealt with so as to enhance relationships and learning.

7.2.4 Humour in the classroom environment

Using Arabic for humour purposes is another theme that teachers noted. The use of humorous techniques within the classroom is shown to enhance the overall connection between students and teacher. As a useful technique in EFL teaching, two NNSs of Arabic teachers suggested the use of Arabic in the English classrooms as a way to instil humour into the lesson. As their Arabic knowledge was very limited, they utilised Arabic to make students laugh, as it could sound funny to the students, which ultimately developed comfort within the learning environment, whilst still providing learning at the same time.

Lulu said:

My use of Arabic usually introduces a comic element, as it is very basic; even the least participating ones respond to this.

From this quotation by Lulu, it is possible to understand that, when Arabic is used in a humorous way, students begin to participate more, as they become more engaged in the learning process. Similarly, Warda used Arabic in her class for humour, as she believed that making students laugh could cut down students' levels of nervousness and anxiety. She stated:

The way I use Arabic is in a humorous way, so the laughter derived from it in itself breaks the foreign language anxiety. I don't use Arabic to translate or teach a grammar point, I use it by giving students pet names or make them laugh because Arabic is my foreign language, not my native language.

It is evident that both teachers, who were observed using Arabic for humorous purposes, were NNSs of Arabic, and, as was shown in Chapter Five, it would not have had the same effect if the teacher had been a NAST, due to the fact that they would make no mistakes. Indeed, the responses of laughter and humour from the students were most likely due not only to the teachers' limited knowledge of Arabic but also to the teachers exploiting this, as they were trying to make their classes interesting and their output understandable. As discussed previously in the findings from the observations (see Chapter Five) with regards to NASTs, only one of them used Arabic, and only once, for the purpose of creating humour, by telling a joke. The teachers who are NNSs of Arabic (Lulu and Warda) used Arabic for humour and said that they were aware of the students' desire to laugh at the way they used Arabic as Lulu said:

...even the least participating ones [students] respond in the class as my use of Arabic is usually to introduce a comic element as it is very basic... I know they like it when I use Arabic as they laugh at my accent.

It can be deduced from this quote that the teacher was aware that her use of Arabic for humour helped engage students, "*even the least participating ones*", in the lesson.

Regarding students' opinions on the use of Arabic for humour, the data gathered in this study are limited. Only two students said that the accent of the teachers who were NNSs of Arabic made them laugh. The teachers who were NNSs of Arabic said in their questionnaires that they used Arabic on purpose as their accent made the students laugh. The fact that only two students said the accent was amusing might be because the others felt it was rude to comment on it.

7.2.5 Teaching methods and Techniques

Teachers seemed to use various techniques during their lessons to make their students understand, remember, analyse, create and utilise the English language that they were learning. Almost all teachers (6 out of 7) said that they attempted to implement techniques that would help them reduce the need to use Arabic in the classroom, confirming that spoken English should be prioritised to fully enhance the learning process. Hence, they implemented a variety of methods to minimise the use of Arabic, using it only to consolidate or check understanding after explanations had been made in English, especially when explaining complex parts of the lesson, such as introducing new and difficult vocabulary or visual aids.

One NNEAST, Shereen, said:

I would typically use a visual aid or simpler words/terms that are synonymous to that word. For example, if I'm trying to explain what a 'field' is, I show them a picture of a field on the projector; and if I'm trying to explain the meaning of 'enormous', I say that it means 'very big'.... instead of resorting to using Arabic, I use visual aids whenever possible. In this case, using the Internet has been of great help, where I just use Google for a picture and the students see it and understand what it is without having to use a single word of Arabic.

Likewise, another teacher, a NEST, Warda, declared:

Step1: use visuals from Google images, or act it out. Step 2: ask a student to translate to the other students. Step 3: check with Google translation.

Therefore, it can be declared that visual imagery is considered by some of the teachers to be more beneficial for learning English, as it functions to process effective learning, instead of requiring the need to translate as a first choice.

Accordingly, Warda seemed to be reluctant to allow the use of Arabic from the beginning. She would start by using techniques such as visual imagery and, only if they did not work would she allow Arabic when necessary to enable students to feel included. This might be because her Arabic knowledge was limited. However, Warda's reluctance to use Arabic within the classroom may have been due to the desire to create a more natural English speaking environment. The students would then gain as much contact with the English vocabulary, accent and structure as possible, especially from the teaching professional, while still maintaining comfort through the use of Arabic between students when it was deemed vital, as was seen in students' replies in Chapter Six.

Other teachers' techniques to facilitate understanding included acting, miming, realia, drilling, imitating, drawing, using examples, using videos or Powerpoint presentations, which allow beginner students to use Arabic together with simple English in the form of short stories.

Simplifying English to get their meaning across was another technique employed by many of the teachers. One NAST, Sona, said:

I typically resort to simple English. If in a discussion, I allow students to pass the Arabic equivalent; if none worked, then I turn to use Arabic.

Therefore, it is shown by the comments of this specific teacher that it is common to attempt to use English as much as possible, and only to resort to the use of Arabic as a teaching tool when the students have failed to understand following simple English. So, in this example, the teacher explained that, first, she used simple English and it could be that she considered simplification as a form of teaching technique. Then she let her students say the Arabic equivalent of what she had explained in English, and, only if these techniques did not work did she use Arabic as a last resort. Here, a link to Macaro's optimal position (discussed in Chapter Two) can be made in order to show

how theory (Macaro's position) is applied or linked to practice (what happened in the classrooms). This will be discussed in Chapter Eight.

Interestingly, one teacher (a NAST, Amal) strongly believed that using Arabic in her English classes is a teaching technique that can be used in any part of the lesson, whenever needed with no need to substitute any other technique. Amal believed that Arabic use is a teaching technique by itself that is recommended for use in English classes. She said:

I see using Arabic as a teaching methodology. Factors such as motivation, students' level of proficiency and building social relationships affect me as a teacher in general and affect my decision about which particular teaching methodology to use, such as using a Powerpoint for example, but these factors do not affect my decision to use Arabic or not in particular because for me Arabic use is a teaching methodology.

This example suggests that L1 use by this particular teacher seems to stem from her strong belief that Arabic use is effective and is a teaching technique by itself. Although this teacher used the term "methodology", she actually meant a technique.

All of the students agreed that teaching techniques were important. Over a third of students stated that the teaching methods used by teachers were as important as the teachers' background when it came to their preferences for the nationality of the teacher. However, there were diverse opinions regarding which category of teacher used good teaching techniques. This could be more about individual differences in terms of methods and techniques used, though there was the idea emerging that some believed NASTs were better at teaching grammar and NESTs were better at vocabulary and communicative activities. Furthermore, certain students shared the belief that NESTs used more effective teaching methods than the NNESTs. Students did not identify which teaching strategies were effective but according to the opinions expressed in the interviews, it could be said that the effectiveness of these strategies differs depending on the teacher type (e.g. teachers' L1 background) and the level of proficiency of student (e.g. beginner, pre-intermediate) in a given language classroom.

From the answers given by students in Chapter Six and teachers in Chapter Seven, there is a level of agreement on the importance of using a variety of techniques. Teachers discussed the techniques they used and how they tried to prioritise English and promote understanding, while the students' responses were concerned with the importance of good teaching techniques and who used them. The students did not identify what they felt were good teaching techniques so it is not possible to provide a student evaluation of the techniques employed. However, as discussed in Chapter Six it was indicated that just adhering to the curriculum was not considered good practice or interesting for some of the students. Students did not refer to the use of Arabic when discussing techniques. However, this was something that was discussed when they talked about the background or nationality of the teacher (see Chapter Six, section 6.2.4). It was evident here that judicious use of Arabic was preferable, which would be in line with the idea of using a variety of techniques to convey meaning and understanding and using Arabic if necessary.

7.3 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to identify whether teachers' views on their Arabic use coincided with their students' views. Comparing teachers' and students' views helps to identify misconceptions the students may have had about learning the L2 and realise areas that may require discussion (Varshney and Rolin-Ianziti, 2006). In addition, communication between teachers and students can be improved when exploring how their views coincide or differ, which also may help to identify areas where principled use of Arabic in the classroom could be used more effectively to enhance the learning process.

The first theme to be compared was the level of proficiency of students. Teachers generally believed that students of lower proficiency required more Arabic in the classroom. This is in line with the student responses which also showed that, to them, proficiency was closely connected to how much Arabic was required. This is linked in part to how views corresponded on the impact of Arabic use on the affective filter and views on the background of the teacher. Both teachers' and students' views in this study matched, on the whole, regarding this and seemed to be linked to student proficiency. For those lower level students, the affective filter seemed to be lower if there was a

shared background and Arabic could be used. When it came to teaching techniques, teachers said they used a variety of teaching techniques in order to maximise the use of English in the classroom and students agreed that good teaching techniques were important. It has been noted that students did not specify what they considered to be good teaching techniques. Although both teachers and students said this was an important consideration, as mentioned before, it did not seem to be a factor in those lessons observed, as will be discussed more fully in Chapter Eight.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to bring together the pertinent findings from the observations, questionnaires and interviews relating to the research questions and issues raised. Chapter Five was concerned with classroom observations to investigate the use of L1 Arabic by teachers in the L2 English classroom and its functions. Chapter Six dealt with student interviews addressing student responses to teacher background and Arabic and English use, while Chapter Seven addressed the extent to which teachers' and students' views on teachers' use of Arabic coincided. In research, one may have original aims and questions that one intends to answer. However, the information that emerges may not always answer that question, or may raise, or answer, other questions. This has been very much apparent in this study, as it has developed. There are contradictions between what teachers were observed to do in the classroom regarding their use of L1 and what they said they actually did, and what students said they or other teachers did.

8.2 The extent of teachers' Arabic use and its functions (RQ1)

There are variations in the way that Arabic is used by teachers in university-level EFL classrooms at the ELI in Saudi Arabia, depending on the teachers' L1. The first research question aimed to identify the extent to which Arabic was used in the English classroom and its main functions. This was achieved by observing the classes of seven teachers and by examining the data from the teacher questionnaires and student interviews.

8.2.1 The extent of Arabic L1 use in the L2 classroom

The main aim of the classroom observations was to examine and compare the extent of Arabic usage by all groups of teachers and the functions of such use. Contrary to my expectations, the percentage of Arabic words used was much lower than originally envisaged across all categories of teachers. Non-native Arabic teachers used Arabic less overall, with one teacher using none at all due to her own low proficiency in Arabic. Variation within groups and individual teachers was observed in terms of

frequency, suggesting that the level of Arabic use could be a response to internal and external factors that arise in specific teaching and learning situations, or teacher responses to such situations. Variations have also been identified in other studies where L1 usage was low (Macaro, 2001; Baeshin, 2016). Two teachers, one NAST and one NNEAST, did not use it at all during the observations, while the higher number of instances for the other two NASTs and one NNEAST were the result of having carried out two observations instead of one. Compared to many other studies, very little use of Arabic was observed across the categories of teachers and ranged from 0 to 7.90% during an observed lesson. Lui et al. (2004) found percentages of L1 use ranging from 22.00% to 90.00% in 13 classes recorded in a Korean classroom, while Chavez (2016), in a case study of three language teachers, found L1 use ranged from 8.45% to 52.23%. Other studies used different methods to quantify the amount of L1 spoken but, nevertheless, it was found that there were similar higher levels of L1 spoken. Macaro (2001) recorded from 0 to 17.20% L1 use while Hobbs et al. (2010) found percentages of L1 use ranging from 20.00% to 75.00% of class time.

The low levels of L1 use in this study may be because the lessons were being observed and the policy of the institute is for English-only instruction. In the questionnaires, all the teachers mentioned using Arabic in the classroom, regardless of their nationality. It may have seemed more acceptable to talk about using Arabic than to be witnessed using it. A recent research study at the same institute (Baeshin, 2016) also found that there was a discrepancy between the lower levels of Arabic use observed and the way Arabic was reported to be used in the classroom. From the workshops held as part of her study, she found that there seemed to be a feeling of shame associated with using Arabic and it was seen by those teachers as a last resort. This feeling of guilt has also been commented upon by Macaro (2005). Prior to the workshops on L1 use in Baeshin's study, all the teachers had advocated the maximal position. One teacher in Macaro's (2001) study felt conflicted in that they were using L1 for instructions, because for them it was the result of not being able to explain adequately in the L2. According to Macaro (2005: 64), usage of L1 has often been phrased in the literature as "recourse to L1", which has a negative connotation despite the fact that codeswitching happens in bilingual communication and therefore can be expected to take place in the classroom. Teachers in the present study may have had similar

feelings towards using Arabic in that they were using L1 as other teaching methods had failed. If they had used Arabic in the observed classes, they would have felt that they had been demonstrating their failure to teach properly. Lui et al. (2004) also found discrepancies between the percentages recorded and the percentages teachers reported using. They suggested in their studies that teachers could have been trying to show their competence and, again, felt guilty about L1 use. This could also be the case here, especially as I, the observer, was a colleague at the same institute. This observation finding was also contradicted by the information gathered from the student interviews. All the students reported that their teachers used Arabic, although these were not necessarily the teachers in the present study.

8.2.2 Functions of teachers' Arabic L1 use

It was identified that the functions for which Arabic was used by teachers in EFL classrooms in the ELI varied according to their L1. All groups of teachers used Arabic instances for administrative and illustrative purposes in line with other studies (Raschka, Sercombe and Chi-Ling, 2009; Hobbs et al., 2010; Liu, 2010), although the NAST teachers who used Arabic used it more frequently. Hobbs et al. (2010) also found that NEST teachers used the L2 for lesson content but classroom management was dealt with in Japanese. In Baeshin's study (2016), at the same institute as this present study, comments were made about the curriculum and the extensive amount of material teachers were required to cover. Using L1 by the NASTs may have helped them to control classroom time as less explanation of the lesson would have been required. This would have helped maintain the pace of the lesson and engage students in the learning process.

In the observations, the second mostly frequent function of L1 use was translation and explaining grammar. This was the chief function of the Arabic used by NAST teachers, suggesting that such teachers use Arabic to deal with complex linguistic matters in the classroom, that need to be addressed in order for teaching and learning to progress successfully. Other studies have also identified that L1 is used for translation; 71% in Kharma and Hajjaj (1989); 39% in Franklin (1990). All the teachers who used Arabic in the classroom, regardless of background, used it at least once for this purpose. When the students were interviewed, one of their main cognitive responses to instances like this was that it helped them remember the words and they even thought of English

synonyms. Other studies (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; Pei-shi, 2012; Kafes, 2011) have pointed out the benefits of using L1 when teaching vocabulary.

Lulu made a mistake when translating 'goat' and 'lamb' during one of the observed lessons. She was not aware of this mistake and the students did not notice either. Although making mistakes could be misleading if not picked up, creating rapport was raised in the literature review and it could be argued that she was creating rapport with, and confidence in, her students by modelling how it is to be a learner of a second language. Learners make mistakes and that is part of the language learning process. Since she was successfully working and living in another country where she was not proficient in the language, and was comfortable making mistakes, this modelled for students that being a language learner can be positive, even if they make mistakes. It was observed during the observation that the students clearly enjoyed her lesson. In order to maximise this learning opportunity, she could have invited her students to comment on her use of Arabic and whether what she had said was correct or not, in order to encourage them to notice the differences between the two languages. This could represent 'good teaching', a theme that recurred throughout the research.

Many other studies have shown that a large number of teachers use L1 when explaining grammar, for example 66% in Kharma and Hajjaj's (1989) study, 88% in Franklin's (1990) study and 87% in Dickson's (1996). The fact that it was the NAST teachers in this study that used it more than other teachers for explaining grammar is probably because the NESTs and NNEASTs did not have sufficient command of Arabic to do this effectively. From the student interviews, there was evidence that some felt the NAST teachers were better at teaching grammar because of this. The one NNEAST who used it only gave a simple example that did not require much Arabic.

Only three of the teachers used Arabic for attracting students' attention; the two NASTs and one of the NNEASTs. The latter used it more frequently, perhaps because it was her L2 and she felt it would be an effective method as they might not expect to hear her speak much Arabic. This is not to say that when she used L1 to translate, explain grammar or to add humour, she was not using it to attract students' attention as it is not easy to have discrete classifications of functions. Many functions overlap (Ferguson, 2009) and the functions could be limitless (Tian and Macaro, 2012).

It can also be seen that L1 use appeared on these occasions to be employed as a sort of highlighting device. It is considered in the literature that using L1 might serve to focus students' attention, and, indeed, the data bears this out somewhat. However, the exact mechanisms underpinning this are unclear. While empirical discourse analysis of classroom interaction and perhaps psycholinguistic research would be necessary, I contend that, on occasion, the use of Arabic in a context where it is not likely can serve to shock or 'wake up' students, which plays a part in focusing their attention.

Both Arabic native and non-Arabic native teachers used students' L1 for affective reasons, as L1 helped to create a less formal relationship between teachers and students. This finding echoes Baeshin (2016), who carried out her study in the same institution and found that the Indian teacher who participated in her study emphasised the use of L1 to build rapport and increase student interest and engagement. Furthermore, the present study provided an initial suggestion with regards to the principled use of L1 in that the teacher's instance of L1 here was acceptable in circumstances where optimal use of L1 helps to build rapport and create a convivial atmosphere in the classroom (Macaro, 2005). The use of L1 for affective reasons is also found in other studies in different non-Arabic contexts (e.g. Franklin, 1990; Ferguson, 2003; Liu et al., 2004; Hobbs et al., 2010; Yao, 2011; Sali, 2014) and in an Arabic context (e.g. Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989; Al-Shidhani, 2009; Alrabah et al., 2016; Baeshin, 2016).

Regarding drawing upon shared cultural expressions, this was also not observed frequently. It was interesting to observe that only one of the NASTs used Arabic for this function, while both the NEST and more frequently Lulu, a NNEAST, also used it. All the teachers in the study were Muslim and the expressions they used are commonly used in some Muslim countries such as Turkey where Arabic is not the L1. The teachers here may have been highlighting the fact they were Muslim by using these expressions. Teachers' use of L1 for shared cultural expressions in L2 classrooms was found in other studies in different contexts where English is taught as a FL (Baeshin, 2016; Sali, 2014; de la Campa and Nassaji, 2009).

Humorous and unprincipled uses were less common overall. The Arabic instances of these uses may also have served more than one function, especially in the case of the NNEASTs who may have used Arabic to try and establish rapport with the students as well as using it for pedagogical purposes. Regarding unprincipled L1 use, it has been found in other studies in non-Arabic contexts (e.g. de la Campa and Nassaji, 2009; Liu et al., 2004) and in the Arabic context. (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; Mohamed, 2007). However, researchers have used different category terms for this function. For example, de la Campa and Nassaji (2009: 748) termed it ‘arbitrary code-mixing’ that means “L1 utterances containing instances of the instructor mixing L1 and L2 words randomly” while Baeshin (2016) and Mohamed (2007) used ‘idiosyncratic L1 use’. Despite having different category terms, they all refer to L1 used by teachers unconsciously and unsystematically for no obvious reason.

One theme that emerged from the student interviews was the idea of the NAST sharing a common background with the students and having a better understanding of their situation. Perhaps the NNEAST felt she had to try and overcome this as she used the L1 more often than the others. The NEST also discussed using Arabic in the questionnaires to make students laugh. Both these teachers said they used their pronunciation to try and engage their students. Although this occurred only twice, as discussed previously, there is a picture emerging that the observations did not truly represent the amount of Arabic normally spoken by the teachers during class. Only a small minority of students mentioned finding the accent of the NNS of Arabic teacher to be funny, although they may have been cautious about admitting this as I was their teachers’ colleague and they may have appeared rude.

Finally, in terms of classroom observations, humour was not observed very frequently, even though it can be an attested good teaching technique when applied in a considered and appropriate manner. Different learning cultures and teachers use humour differently, or not at all, and staff members may have their own perceptions of when humour is appropriate and when it is not. It could be suggested that humour was not a frequent feature of the observations precisely because the teachers were being observed, and may have thought that being funny was not appropriate.

However, the use of humorous techniques within the classroom was thought to enhance the overall connection between students and teacher. As a useful technique in EFL teaching, two teachers suggested the use of Arabic in the English classrooms as a way to instil humour into the lesson. As their Arabic knowledge was very limited, they utilised Arabic to make students laugh, as it might sound funny to the students, which would ultimately develop comfort within the learning environment, whilst providing learning at the same time. It should be noted that Arabic teachers did not explicitly mention deliberately using humour, while other teachers were more aware of this. The use of L1 for humour is also found in other studies (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; de la Campa and Nassaji, 2009)

There was the sense after the observations and from the data from the student interviews and teacher questionnaires that discussed the techniques used, that teachers used Arabic if it was necessary to ‘fix’ something that had gone wrong in an activity or communicative situation that was required for teaching/learning to progress. This mirrors the idea of only using L1 when other methods have failed. Teachers appeared to be making judgments about when to use Arabic to aim for better communication so as to support learning, and this may link to what was said about the theme of ‘good teaching’ that has emerged throughout this study. However, there does not appear to be a general level of awareness that principled use of L1 in the classroom could have pedagogical value and should not be used just as a last resort. Only one teacher reported using it as a teaching tool. In Baeshin’s (2016) workshops, many of the teachers were relieved to know that other teachers in different contexts (e.g. Iran, UK, Taiwan, China) were using students’ L1 for different functions despite monolingual policies. Prior to the workshops, they admitted that they felt guilty about L1 use; even after the workshops teachers still felt guilty.

8.3 Students’ level of proficiency (RQ2)

The second research question was concerned with how students’ level of proficiency affected the amount of L1 used. From the observations, it was not clear whether teachers’ usage of Arabic may vary according to students’ level of proficiency. No real difference was observed in terms of the amount of L1 use among teachers in relation to students’ level of proficiency. As discussed previously in Chapter Five, less Arabic was spoken in the classrooms observed than expected so variations on how much

Arabic was used with lower levels was hard to identify. However, both teachers and students in the questionnaires and interviews said this was an important factor and lower levels of proficiency required more L1 input. In Baeshin's (2016) study, teachers in the workshops also spoke of using more Arabic with lower levels of students, so, based on the interview/questionnaire data from this study and from Baeshin's research, it is reasonable to expect that the teachers used more Arabic in lower proficiency classes when not being observed. This need for more Arabic to be used in the classroom expressed by the majority of students in the interviews is in line with the findings concluded by Carson and Kashihara (2012). They conducted a study in Japan investigating the relationship between students' need for L1 in the classroom and their level of proficiency in the L2 (English). They found that beginner students were in favour of L1 support more than advanced students, as around 80% of the beginner students preferred that their instructors knew and used Japanese, and preferred to use Japanese in class. A similar result was obtained by Solhi and Büyükyazı (2011) in a Turkish context, where the majority of English teachers were NNESTs. They also found that lower levels preferred more L1 input and as they improved they preferred less (Solhi and Büyükyazı, 2011).

In the interviews, one student did express that she found it dispiriting to have L1 spoken in the classroom, which links in with the low levels of self-confidence that seemed to be a result of the poor English tuition in high schools. Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz (2011) found that excessive use of an L1 could demotivate students to learn. They reported that both low and high proficiency students believed that their overuse of L1 in L2 classes could affect their proficiency improvement in L2. These learners believed that the L2 should be used predominantly in L2 (English) classes. Therefore, as a result of the findings of the current study and studies carried out by other researchers, it can be concluded that the proficiency level of students in English can affect the amount of L1 the teachers use and acceptance of Arabic use in the EFL classroom, however this should be perceived as being judicious.

8.4 Students' preferences for their EFL teacher (RQ 3)

One might have considered that students would prefer a NEST, as they might be considered as sources of the 'best' input. However, this category exhibited the lowest preference ratings in the interviews. Many students preferred a teacher from an Arabic

L1 background, for reasons relating to culture and rapport. Those students who preferred the NESTs perceived those teachers to be ideal as they are influenced by their own background and culture which seems to be in agreement with Milambiling (1999: 4) who used both interviews and questionnaires and found that “non-native speakers bring a variety of background experiences, attitudes and openness to their teaching situations.” In addition, Alseweed (2012) suggested that students were in favour of NESTs as they moved to higher levels. Furthermore, he found that students with low levels of proficiency in the L2 prefer NNESTs whereas advanced students prefer NESTs. This links in with the agreement between teachers and students in this study who said more L1 use was necessary with lower levels.

It can be seen that Arabic use is very common and perhaps powerful in dealing with complex linguistic matters, which is something raised in Chapter Five, and in the literature. The results of this research suggest that some students preferred a NAST because she shared the L1, allowing students to express themselves about personal issues in their L1. Furthermore, her teaching methods were good and she understood that they were weak in English. These results are in conformity with previous findings. For example, Ma (2012) noted that the dominant advantage of NNESTs, in her study, was their ability to use their students' L1, as the students could more easily understand their teachers, especially when explaining grammar or difficult English vocabulary. According to Ma (2012), other advantages of NNESTs include easy communication and close relationships between students and teachers.

The reasons provided by students above with regards to their preference for NASTs are supported by Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014), who observed that L1 students (Japanese and Vietnamese) in L2 (English) classrooms viewed NNESTs as effective teachers. They held that NNESTs could adjust to students' language when the need arose. Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014) also found that it was easier for students to interact with NNESTs in EFL classrooms due to their shared culture. Furthermore, it was easier for students to comprehend NNESTs' pronunciation in EFL classrooms, although NNESTs were actually viewed as having inferior pronunciation compared to NESTs (Walkinshaw and Oanh, 2014). Perhaps this is the type of paradox suggested by the preference for a ‘good English teacher’. A native may have ‘good’ pronunciation in that it is correct, but it will not be ‘good’ if it cannot be

comprehended. This, similarly, is what seems to be suggested in this research - some students in the present study held the same perception that the pronunciation of NESTs might be ideal (more discussion about that was provided in Chapter Six, section 6.3.1), but some preferred a 'good English teacher'. In the interviews, there were complaints from some of the students that some of the NNEASTs were not adequately trained. Furthermore, Alseweed (2012) revealed that students were moderately in favour of NNESTs as they were able to fulfil students' needs, such as providing a comfortable learning environment and using motivating teaching methods. Here, some students expressed a preference for native Arabic speaker teachers because they thought the methods they employed were good. However, this might just be a way of students saying that they like the fact such the teachers employed methods they were used to, whether or not they were pedagogically effective.

Some students commented on the NAST's ability to help students express themselves in English, which is supported by the findings of Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014) and Benke and Medgyes (2005), who noted that NNESTs could use students' L1 when the need arose. Other students also preferred being taught by both English native and Arabic native teachers, depending on who was teaching what. This seems to be in line with the findings of Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014), and Benke and Medgyes (2005), who also found that NESTs were seen as facilitating L2 learning, acting as models of correct language use and perfect pronunciation. However, 37% of students in this study had a preference for 'a good English teacher', where 'ideal' referred to the ability to teach well: what mattered most when considering what language was used when in language learning related to whether the choice of language was the optimal strategy for teaching and learning.

Indeed, Macaro and Lee (2013) confirmed that L1 (Korean) learners in L2 (English) classrooms did not overtly express their preference for the teacher type (i.e., NESTs or NNESTs). However, young learners held that they found it difficult to understand NESTs, and that some NESTs were unable to help them understand fully their input, perhaps implying a preference for NNESTs. While it is a different dimension to the finding just stated, adult L2 learners were more likely to suggest that the teacher's L1 background was less important than what and how a teacher taught, which is of relevance to this study. A similar finding was identified in the present study; how the

teacher taught is more important than the teacher's L1 background. It appears that, in both contexts, adult learners held similar views about the preference for the teacher who uses different teaching techniques. Moreover, this result echoes what Walkinshaw and Duong (2012) found, that students emphasise the importance of a teacher's ability to deliver the class in an informative and interesting way more than being taught by one who is a native speaker of the L2.

It was interesting to find that some students were making generalisations that NESTs are better than the NNESTs, even though some in my dataset held a contrasting view. However, though it has been found that the English native speaker is the ideal model (Benke and Medgyes, 2005; Alseweed, 2012; Walkinshaw and Duong, 2012), he/she is not always the best model in terms of accent, pronunciation and use of vocabulary. It is not always the case that the English language used by NESTs is eloquent, comprehensible or literate (Hall and Cook, 2012) as there are so many varieties of spoken English and some learners take time to become accustomed to.

Some of the students seemed to have a common belief that NESTs can help them expand their knowledge and gain new words. This is consistent with various studies. According to Milambiling (1999), NESTs are a great source of new words that reflect a different culture with different opportunities to acquire the L2. The findings may be consistent, but it does not mean that everyone's path to the explanation is the same; these theorists still link vocabulary acquisition, in part, to the nativeness of the teacher. This is too simplistic. It seems we should account for how good the teacher is as well as their background and, moreover, that a simple change in methodology can trigger students into becoming more motivated is almost a side effect, which could increase vocabulary. The picture of the factors at work here is much richer and more complex than previously thought when this study commenced

Students' attitude and preference to be taught by a particular teacher from a particular background may also be affected by the teachers' accent. Despite differences in the background and nationality of teachers, students want teachers to use an accent in accordance with their preference, such as the use of an American accent, even though the teacher may be a NAST. Students' negative viewpoints about the teachers' accents, other than the British or the American accents, reflect a wider view embedded

in Saudi society. Their views accentuate Kachru's (1992) argument that speakers of other varieties of English perceive the English of inner circle countries as superior to theirs. Kachru (1992: 60) argues that

The non-native speakers themselves have not been able to accept what may be termed the 'ecological validity' of their nativised or local Englishes. One would have expected such acceptance, given the acculturation and linguistic nativisation of the new varieties. On the other hand, the native models of English (such as RP or General American) are not accepted without reservations. There is thus a case of linguistic schizophrenia...

As discussed in Chapter Six (see section 6.3.3), cultural closeness may play a role in encouraging communication. Alseweed (2012) also supported the view that NNESTs who share with students their L1 are able to share personal experiences with learners in the L2 classrooms, and that they can demonstrate to students that they are aware of what difficulties and obstacles they are facing in their learning process. This may have lead to one of the NNEASTs in this study using Arabic for more affective purposes.

8.5 Students' responses to teachers' Arabic use (RQ 4)

Unlike proponents of the Audio-Lingual and Direct Methods, Cook (2008) argues that the L1 and L2 are interconnected and not separate entities. Learners can refer to their L1, which can be a useful strategy in their language learning. To the best of my knowledge, until now, there has not been a study that specifically investigates students' cognitive responses to L1 use by teachers. Kern (1994), investigated learner strategies used in language classrooms. He found that using L1 as a learning strategy is advantageous as L1 helps with the storage of meaning and allows its reinforcement. This may indicate that the use of L1 as a learning strategy in the L2 classroom is useful but that it should be used purposefully and judiciously. As Macaro (2001) stated in his optimal position (discussed in Chapter Two), there are some pedagogical aspects of L1 use that help to enhance L2 learning. The use of L1 as a learning strategy is one of the pedagogical values of L1 use in L2 classrooms.

There have been a limited number of studies on student learner strategies in the Saudi context, such as Alhaisoni, 2012, but these have concentrated on student strategies concerning L2 input, which was dealt with in the second section of the interview. The questions in the first section of the interviews focused on students' cognitive responses to teachers' L1 use. Some students interpreted the questions differently and even when the questions about the mental processes were rephrased, it appeared they were not aware of their cognitive responses. Instead, they commented on their teachers' use of L1 and their opinions regarding this, as will be discussed later in this section. However, with prompting, most of the students were able to recall three cognitive responses.

The majority of students reported that they compared English grammatical rules to Arabic ones. According to Oxford (1990), this is one of the four categories of learning strategies: analysing and reasoning (analysing expressions and analysing contrastively across languages, translating, transferring). This is similar to what Schmidt (1990) calls the 'noticing hypothesis', where students look for similarities as well as differences in their L1 and the L2 in order to learn the grammar of the L2. In other words, being aware of and processing these similarities and differences can be a useful learning strategy (Campbell, 1997). Similarly, Meiring and Norman (2002) identified that making comparisons between the L1 and L2 was a useful learning strategy that could be used to aid understanding in the classroom.

The second most frequent cognitive response was memorising new words instantly. Although it seems unlikely there was instant memorisation, it was the students' choice of words. When the teacher gave a translation of a new vocabulary item, the students felt they understood it immediately and could therefore remember it. Again, this falls into the same category of learning strategy (Oxford, 1990) as the comparison of grammatical rules. Moreover, the findings of Macaro (2014) are in line with the findings of the present study as he revealed that learners in L2 classrooms found it extremely difficult to understand the new lexical items explained only in L2 by their teacher in the context of students learning French in England. Therefore, he concluded that teachers should switch to L1 when explaining the meaning of new lexical words but they should reserve this for difficult vocabulary items.

Similar to the first cognitive response, making connections between Arabic and English was also employed by the majority of students. Again, this echoes Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis. Fewer students (under half) said that teachers' Arabic use stimulated them "to find English equivalents/think of English synonyms". I surmise that those students heard the Arabic and automatically translated it into English as a matter of course. This might be a strategy more likely to be employed by a more proficient student and many of the students were intermediate and below.

As discussed in Chapter Seven, some of the students discussed their views on teachers' Arabic use rather than providing their cognitive responses. The question was restated but I did not indicate that their responses were not what I was looking for. Some students believed that Arabic helped them to understand the L2 input. Again, this is in line with Macaro (2014). He argued that with new complex input, teachers should use the L1. Students also said that Arabic was important in the English classroom as it was helpful for them to pass examinations and a good strategy that should be followed.

On the other hand, there were some negative views on the impact of teachers' Arabic on students as learners. They argued that it should be used as little as possible as it made them feel inadequate. This suggests that students and teachers recognise the importance of using L1 in L2 classroom but do not favour its overuse. This seems to be in line with what Varshney and Rolin-Ianziti, (2006), who found that a high percentage of students in their study reported that L1 slowed their improvement in L2 and led to overreliance.

8.6 Students' cognitive response to teachers' English use (RQ5)

The aim of investigating these students' responses was to gather insight into how Arabic can be used more effectively in the classroom. When students were asked about their cognitive responses to their teachers' use of English, they commented more on their cognitive processes than when they had been asked about how they responded to their teachers' use of Arabic. They were also asked to compare their responses when the input was in English with the strategies they used when the input was in Arabic. This was based on stimulated recall, so there is the implicit acknowledgment that I may have influenced their answers or they may have said what they felt I wanted to hear. In the lessons observed, very little Arabic was spoken by the teachers although

the students spoke of other lessons in the interviews. Furthermore, it was clear from this information that, in contrast to the observation data, the amount of Arabic varied extensively from teacher to teacher and sometimes could be quite high.

The most frequent cognitive response to the teachers' use of English was related to mental translation strategies. As mentioned in the previous section, Cook (2001) emphasised that L1 and L2 are not separate in learners' minds, and, often, students will respond in the L1, mentally translating, even when asked questions in the L2 (Li and Walsh, 2011). Kern (1994) identified that there were advantages to this as translating to L1 helps students remember the meaning and classify vocabulary into clusters that also aid memorisation. Dörnyei (1995) considered literal translation as one of his "compensatory strategies" used to compensate for missing knowledge, but described this as being from L1 to L2. However, this could be from L2 to L1 (Chamot and Kupper, 1989). Furthermore, it could be argued that not all translation is compensatory as it might be an automatic response due the 'interwoven' nature of the L1 and L2. Regardless of this, it is still a strategy that was used by the students.

Although fewer students first tried to guess the meaning from the context, it was still the second most commonly used strategy, with just over half saying they did this. It is not clear whether these were the more proficient students as the focus of these questions was not to identify which strategies were used by those of different proficiency levels. This could be a focus of future research on this area. Some of the students who said they used this strategy were the same students who said they also translated from English to Arabic and used it alongside other strategies. When some were unable to understand from the context, they applied a mental translation strategy or followed on with the social strategy of asking the teacher or a classmate.

Regarding students' behavioural responses to teachers' English use, the most frequently used response when the L2 input was not understood, according to the interviews, was using a dictionary. I did not ask them to specify what type of dictionary and from my experience of teaching in the institute, students tend to use a mix of both electronic translators and hard copy, monolingual and Arabic/English dictionaries. When students discussed using dictionaries, they did so in reference to using them for self-study at home and not just in the classroom. Although all of the students said they

used them, I did not observe this in the classes. Again, this might be down to the observer's paradox, or the fact that it is harder to look up a word when it is spoken, especially if unfamiliar and students are unsure how to spell it. There are no study skills lessons at the institute and students are not instructed on how to use dictionaries effectively as part of the syllabus, so this is something that could be developed in order to promote more effective use of Arabic in the classroom, as will be discussed in the next chapter which includes recommendations.

The second most frequently used behavioural strategies that students reported using were social strategies; those that involved asking for help either from the teacher or other students. According to their interview responses, the students in this study tended to ask the teacher, or they asked a classmate, in Arabic. However, as discussed in the preceding paragraph, these social strategies were not observed, but students discussed using such strategies in the interviews. The reason this might not have been observed is the fact that sometimes students are embarrassed to ask if they do not understand or they may have not wanted the observer to see that the teacher had not been able to explain something, which they felt may have reflected badly on their teachers' ability to teach. Other students tried to focus on English only.

When comparing the responses to teachers' use of Arabic and their use of English in the classroom, students were more able to talk about their cognitive responses to L1 input. This is probably due to the fact that they were familiar with their own study strategies when learning a language but it may have seemed stranger to discuss how they responded to Arabic as the focus of the classes is on the L2 input. With both L1 and L2 input, one of the students' first responses seemed to be translating and making comparisons between the two languages. The benefits of this have been discussed in previous sections. They claimed they only used dictionaries when the input was in English so we can presume they were translating rather than using a monolingual dictionary. Very few students said they tried to focus on the English, which considering the levels of the students is not entirely surprising. I did not ask how effective the students felt their study strategies were, which may have been of value when identifying how to improve the pedagogical value of L1 use in the classroom. However, it is clear that some of the strategies used when responding to L2 input could

be effective in maximising the benefits of L1, such as comparing the two languages, effective use of dictionaries and so on.

8.7 The extent to which teachers' and students' views coincided (RQ 6)

The aim of this question was to identify whether teachers' views on their Arabic use coincided with students' views. This comparison could aid in the identification of any areas of misunderstanding the students may have about learning the L2 and areas that may require discussion (Varshney and Rolin-Ianziti, 2006). In addition, communication between teachers and students can be improved when investigating how their views compare which also may help to identify areas where principled use of Arabic in the classroom could be used more effectively to enhance the learning process.

Generally speaking, teachers' and students' views coincided to great extent. This seems to be in line with the findings of Varshney and Rolin-Ianziti, (2006) and Levine (2003), who compared students' views on using L1 in FL teaching to teachers' views. They found no significant difference between students' and teachers' views on L1 use in FL classrooms

The first theme to be compared was the level of proficiency of students. Teachers and students generally believed that students of lower proficiency required more Arabic in the classroom. This echoes the results of Varshney and Rolin-Ianziti, (2006) who found that both teachers and students viewed LI to be advantageous when used in beginner classes. In addition, this is linked in part to how views corresponded on the use of Arabic's impact on the affective filter and views on the background of the teacher. Both teachers' and students' views in this study matched on the whole regarding this and seemed to be linked to student proficiency. For those lower level students, the affective filter seemed to be lower if there was a shared background and Arabic could be used. When it came to teaching techniques, teachers said they used a variety of teaching techniques in order to maximise the use of English in the classroom and students agreed that good teaching techniques were important. It has been noted that students did not specify what they considered to be good teaching techniques.

As far as student proficiency was concerned with regards to teachers' replies, it can be concluded that the proficiency level of students in English actively affects the students' preference and acceptance of Arabic use in the EFL classroom. Hence, it is necessary to determine whether teachers understand the lower level proficiency students' belief in L1 use, in order to highlight how the use of L1 may be implemented. It is, however, essential to highlight the point that there is a difference between "weak students" and students whose level of proficiency in English is low. Another major theme that emerged from teachers' replies is that there is a positive relationship between teachers' Arabic use and students' low affective filter. In other words, teachers use Arabic in order to motivate students and make them feel positive. When a student's L1 is integrated into the teaching process, it provides a greater level of comfort in the classroom environment. In contrast with findings of the present study, Levine (2003) compared students' attitudes to teachers' beliefs about L1 use in FL classrooms in the USA and Canada. He found a negative correlation between students and teachers' views regarding how students felt about the amount of L2 in the classrooms as students were less anxious than teachers thought when the amount of L2 was increased. However, it is not purely the use of Arabic that has been noted by the teachers that affected these active learning filters in the present study. There was a strong perception among teachers that students have specific views in relation to the nationality of their EFL teacher.

It can be declared that visual imagery is considered by some of the teachers to be beneficial for learning English, as it functions to process effective learning, instead of requiring the need to translate as a first choice. Nevertheless, it is not guaranteed that if the teacher uses this technique that she could prevent students themselves from translating in their minds. Moreover, it is not clear that prevention of translation is truly possible, or needed. Here, Macaro's optimal position (2001) can be applied.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This study investigated university-level students' responses to Arabic used by EFL teachers from different L1 backgrounds at the ELI in Saudi Arabia. Students' preferences for EFL teachers regarding their L1 backgrounds were also examined. In order to explore students' responses and preferences, the extent of teachers' Arabic use and its functions were identified. In addition, teachers' views on their use of Arabic were examined in order to establish the extent to which their views coincided with those of their students.

This chapter serves as a conclusion to this thesis. It first presents a summary of the main findings of the study by providing the answers to the research questions that this study addressed. Then, some limitations of the study are discussed, followed by implications and recommendations for EFL teachers. Finally, some suggestions for future research are recommended.

9.2 Summary of the study

In this section, the main findings of the present study are presented with reference to the research questions. Research questions 1 and 2 are the background questions whereas research questions 3, 4 and 5 are the main ones. Research question 6 is a follow up question.

9.2.1 RQ1: Does the way that Arabic is used by teachers in university-level EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia at the ELI vary according to teachers' L1?

This question dealt with the extent of Arabic used by teachers who come from different L1 backgrounds (NAST, NESTs and NNEASTs) and its functions. From classroom observations, it was found that teachers from all backgrounds used a limited amount of L1, although two teachers did not use it at all. There was far less Arabic L1 use than expected and this did not match the data obtained from the teacher questionnaires and student interviews, where a picture evolved of Arabic being used routinely in many of the classes. The reasons as to why this might be the case have been discussed in

Chapter Eight (see section 8.2.1). The range of functions it was used for matched those identified in other studies and often use of L1 served more than one function.

9.2.2 RQ2: Does the extent of teachers' usage of Arabic vary according to their students' level of proficiency?

This research found that there was no real difference in respect of the quantity of L1 use among teachers relative to students' level of proficiency. This is most likely because only one elementary class and one intermediate class were observed while the rest of the classrooms observed were intermediate. Furthermore, as discussed in Chapter One, if students manage to achieve 4.5 in IELTS they are not obliged to take the English course, so there does not appear to be wide range of proficiency levels to be observed in the Institute. As discussed in detail in Chapter Four, the lack of range in English proficiency in the classrooms observed, and being able to observe some teachers only once while other teachers were observed twice, may have led to inconclusive findings with regards to the relationship between Arabic use and students' level of proficiency (see limitations of the study, section 9.3). Although variations in L1 use were not observed to occur according to the proficiency level of the class, the majority of students and teachers said that this was, indeed, a factor. The lower levels of L1 observed may not depict what happens in average classes at the ELI. It was anticipated that the teachers' L1 background and my presence in the classroom could be factors in influencing the amount of the L1 used by teachers.

9.2.3 RQ3: What are Saudi university students' preferences with regards to their EFL teacher's L1 background?

Interviews were used to investigate students' views with regards to their preferences for teachers' L1 backgrounds. In contrast to my expectation that the majority of students would prefer a NEST, there were a range of views concerning this. Many students said they would rather be taught by a NAST for grammar, perhaps because of the relatively students' low levels of English proficiency, and the fact that there are few opportunities to practice English outside the classroom. Furthermore, some students mentioned that NASTs had an understanding of their previous English language instruction and were less likely to think they were lazy. The advantages of a

NEST seemed to be for vocabulary acquisition and being a model for pronunciation, which for some students complimented the role of a NAST.

More significant than background or nationality was the preference expressed for being taught by a teacher with the qualities of a good English teacher. Teaching methods and techniques, accent used by teachers, and flexibility of communication between student and teacher were considered to be important by students with regards to their preferences for their English teacher. Examples of good and bad teaching, regardless of the nationality of the teacher, were provided in the interviews.

9.2.4 RQ4: How do students respond to their teachers' use of Arabic?

This question covered students' cognitive responses to their teachers' use of Arabic by using stimulated recall interviews. Asking students about how they were thinking when teachers used Arabic might not be very common or usual, so it might be that some provided the first thing to come across their minds when giving their views on the advantages of teachers' Arabic use.

The students' responses were categorised into two groups; cognitive responses that showed how students thought when teachers used Arabic and responses that highlighted the benefits of L1 use. One explanation for this is that some students interpreted the questions differently and, even when the questions about mental processes were rephrased or it appeared they were not aware of their cognitive responses, they commented on their teachers' use of L1 and its benefits, and their opinions regarding this. However, with prompting, most of the students were able to recall three cognitive responses, which were; comparing across the two languages, making connections between English and Arabic and memorising new words instantly. Fewer students reported that they felt stimulated to find or think of equivalent English synonyms, which is something that is discussed in the implications and recommendations later in this chapter.

9.2.5 RQ5: How do students respond to their teachers' use of English?

Considering how students responded to teachers' English use was crucial to this research, as it shed light on what happened when Arabic was used by teachers. Students' responses to teachers' English use were divided into two categories;

cognitive responses and behavioural responses. With regards to cognitive responses, students reported that they used mental translation as their most frequent strategy. This included thinking of Arabic translations or equivalents, constant translation into Arabic and guessing in Arabic. The least frequently used strategies included finding another English synonym, focusing on English only and not thinking of Arabic. Concerning the behavioural strategies, the most frequently used were using dictionaries, and other social strategies including asking teachers or classmates for clarification.

9.2.6 RQ6: To what extent do the teachers' views on their Arabic use coincide with that of students?

Teachers' views concurred with the students' responses about teachers' use of Arabic. The teachers completed open-ended questionnaires to identify the extent to which their views on Arabic use coincided with students' views. This information is considered useful in terms of understanding the complexity of the issue of L1 use in L2 classrooms, and to determine the relationship between teachers' views and how students felt with regards to their responses to the teachers' use of Arabic.

In general, teachers' and students' views coincided to a great extent. Regarding students' level of proficiency, teachers and students generally believed that students of lower proficiency required more Arabic use in the classroom. In addition, both teachers' and students' views in this study matched on the whole regarding the affective filter, which seemed to be lower if Arabic was used in the EFL classroom. When it came to teaching techniques, teachers said they used a variety in order to maximise the use of English in the classroom and students agreed that good teaching techniques were important. It has been noted that students did not specify what they considered to be good teaching techniques.

9.3 Limitations of the study

Limitations of this study include the inconsistency in the number of classes observed regarding the level of proficiency and only being able to observe some teachers once when other teachers were observed twice. This was, in part, unavoidable due to the nature of working at the ELI, where teaching hours and administrative responsibilities, combined with family responsibilities and reliance on drivers, means that teachers are

time constrained and are not able or willing to give up their time for a research study. While there are some exceptionally proficient students who have not been able to take the IELTSs and are, hence, still at the Institute, the range of levels for most students falls under IELTS 4.5. The findings of this present study would have been more consistent or convincing if more classes (i.e. consistent number) from different levels of proficiency had been available to be observed.

One possible limitation is regarding the stimulated recalls used to identify students' responses. This was the first time I and the students had been part of this type of exercise and it took a while to build the rapport and confidence necessary to gather responses. After the pilot, it was realised that it was necessary to be more specific with some of the questions. Furthermore, training in this method might have been beneficial to gain richer and detailed data. However, despite this, as the interviews progressed I became more confident about using this method and valuable data was gathered, although it is clear that some students interpreted what 'cognitive' meant differently to what I wanted to achieve. That is to say that not all students produced the type of information I sought. However, the responses were still of interest and were sufficient to provide conclusive results.

Another limitation of this study is that stimulated recall was not used with the teachers, who provided data through questionnaires. More specifically, it would have been beneficial to ask the teachers why they did or did not use Arabic at points during their lessons and to identify the exact functions of their L1 use. However, as mentioned, the teachers at the Institute are time constrained and questionnaires seemed less time consuming for them to complete.

The findings of this study were dependent on a small sample (30 students and seven teachers) at the ELI. Therefore, no generalisations can be made from the findings as the study is only representative of its small number of participants and are limited to its context and to samples with similar contexts and cultural background.

9.4 Implications and recommendations for ELI teachers and policy makers.

Based on the findings from this research, it is clear that, despite the fact the teachers did not use a large amount of L1 during the observations, it was used routinely by

some teachers at the Institute. The workshops on L1 use in Baeshin's (2016) study provided teachers with input on how L1 could be utilised more effectively in the classroom and a space for them to discuss with each other how they used it. These types of workshops could be held more regularly and form part of a CPD programme in the Institute. They could be extended to cover more aspects of L1 usage, such as discussions on how much could be considered principled L1 use, so that there was more uniformity in how it was used amongst Arabic speaking teachers in the Institute. This may help to alleviate the discomfort felt by some students when they feel too much L1 is used. These workshops could also be a platform to develop teaching activities that focus on utilising and harnessing some of the learning strategies that students already use when the L1 is used in the classroom, such as comparing across languages and encouraging students to think of English equivalents. This would help to move away from the idea of resorting to L1 only when other methods fail, and the guilt that was described in Baeshin's (2016) study.

These workshops would rely on teachers having the time to participate given the constraints that have been mentioned previously. This might mean that the Institute would have to find cover for the classes of those teachers who wished to participate. It would also mean that the Institute might have to revise its English-only policy as, in reality, this does not appear to be working in many of the classrooms. Though this policy change may not be feasible immediately, it did not appear from Baeshin's study that the Institute opposed such discussion and, with time, it may tacitly acknowledge that L1 is being used.

One theme emerging from the student interviews was that non-NASTs did not have enough understanding of Saudi culture or the educational background of the students. This, for some students, was a reason for preferring NASTs. To remedy this, it is recommended that the Institute includes more sessions on Saudi culture and education in the induction of new teachers, as well as CPD sessions for those already working there. This would raise levels of awareness of issues such as students' level of proficiency in English. If including this in inductions or CPD sessions, an information pack could be provided for teachers and this could be the basis for class discussions on cultural differences, and student and teacher expectations.

Another theme that emerged from the interviews was that of what a good teacher was. The levels of teacher training and experience varies in the Institution, and even experienced teachers would benefit from learning new techniques. Teacher trainers or more experienced teachers with an interest in certain activities could be invited to run workshops on developing or consolidating techniques for teaching areas such as vocabulary or speaking activities. This again might mean the Institute has to arrange cover for those wishing to attend these workshops, but the benefits of attending would hopefully outweigh the timetabling issues.

It is evident that some students respond cognitively to L1 being used in the classroom and translation appears to be one of the most commonly used strategies. All the students said they used dictionaries but these were Arabic-English. Lessons on using dictionaries more effectively could be integrated into the classes, with tasks on choosing the correct word form or definition for the context. This would help students to foster more independent study skills and to develop vocabulary. They could also be encouraged to start personal vocabulary journals, where they could record new words, with the Arabic translation the teacher may have given or definitions they find from their dictionaries. It could also include example sentences and all the word forms.

Students also said they compared the two languages when they heard L1 being spoken by the teachers. In grammar lessons, these differences could be highlighted and common student errors caused by these differences discussed. This could form part of a revision task using grammar auctions for example, where teams of students bid on correct sentences and have to correct the ones with mistakes.

Finally, it seems that many of the students were lacking confidence and the nature of life for female Saudi women means that there are less opportunities for students to practice outside the classroom. Group Skype sessions could be encouraged where teams of students are given presentations to prepare and practice at home. Using Skype would mean that they could practice and get feedback from their classmates outside of class time. Topics could even include advice on study skills and tips on learning vocabulary, as well as more personal issues. This would depend on good internet connection, but this is less of a problem in Saudi Arabia today.

9.5 Suggestions for future research

It is recommended that more research should be conducted within the Saudi context, particularly at university level, investigating the effect of L1 use on students' results when passing English exams, as this did seem to be a concern of some of the students. This might involve a comparison of results of classes where no Arabic was said to be used and those where it was. This might rely on investigating student perceptions of how this impacted on their results.

Some remarks were made regarding nationality preferences and the fact remains that there will always be some students who have some preference regarding nationality. Further research is required, but working with this may be part of a longer-term study that is needed in the Saudi EFL context to look at perceptions of teacher nationality, and consider how any misunderstandings, prejudices or difficulties might be dealt with so, as to enhance relationships and learning. If sessions or information packs on Saudi culture were provided, the impacts of this could be explored by investigating student and teacher perceptions through interviews or questionnaires.

There are many studies regarding language learner strategies. However, more research studies are required to identify how students respond to teachers' use of Arabic. This study only involved 30 students with the majority of them having no more than 4.5 in IELTS. The university has more than one campus and the study could be expanded to include students from other campuses and with higher levels of proficiency to see how the cognitive responses vary. Stimulated recall could be used again, especially as I am now both more adept and experienced in using it. Given the logistical issues associated with conducting research in Saudi Arabia, Skype could be used as a backup if it is not possible to conduct interviews face to face.

To gain fuller and deeper understanding of the teachers' use of L1, more in-depth research needs to be carried out on a larger scale, involving a larger number of teachers and students, as well as policy makers and officials at the ELI. Stimulated recall methodology could be employed again so comparisons can be made to compare the functions identified by the researchers with the functions teachers said they used L1 for. This could include other campuses and, again, use mixed methods, including Skype where necessary.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Observation schedule (Before piloting)

Date:

Time: from _____ to _____

Level:

Teacher's name and nationality:

Skill taught:

No of instances	Functional categorises of Arabic used by teachers	Examples of Arabic use	Visible students' reaction	Other comments
	Building personal relationships			
	Compare/contrast L1 and L2			
	Compare cultural differences			
	Classroom management			
	Grammar explanation			
	Translate new/difficult words			
	Examination instructions			
	Task instructions			

Appendix 2

Observation schedule (After piloting)

Date:

Time: from _____ to _____

Level:

Teacher's name and nationality:

Skill taught:

No of instances	Teachers' Arabic instances	Preliminary function of teachers' Arabic use	Visible Students' reactions and other comments
		Translation	
		Grammar explanation	
		humour	
		Examination instructions	
		Task instructions	
		Compare cultural differences	
		Compare/contrast L1 and L2	
		Building personal relationships	
		Classroom management	
		others	

Appendix 3

Interview questions for students

(Before piloting)

1. As regards the nationality of your English teacher? (Arabic native, English native, or non-English/ Arabic native teachers. Which one do you prefer and why?
2. Does that preference relate to teacher's use of Arabic?
3. Are you in favor of teacher's use of Arabic?
4. What skills do you think that require using Arabic?
5. In your opinion, what reasons that encouraged teachers to use Arabic?
6. Do you think that your level of proficiency affects teachers' use of Arabic?
7. How do you think during the English classrooms?
8. Your teacher sometimes used Arabic and sometimes used English only to explain a certain point, when she used Arabic/English, what did you do at that time at a cognitive level? What happened at that time in your mind? What you were thinking? What went through your mind?
9. How did you feel when the teacher uses Arabic/ English?

Appendix 4

Interview questions for students

(After piloting)

1. As regards the nationality of your English teacher? (Arabic native, English native, or non-English/ Arabic native teachers. Which one do you prefer and why?
2. Does that preference relate to teacher's use of Arabic?
3. Are you in favor of teacher's use of Arabic?
4. What skills do you think that require using Arabic?
5. In your opinion, what reasons that encouraged teachers to use Arabic?
6. Do you think that your level of proficiency affects teachers' use of Arabic?
7. Do you think in Arabic or in English during the English classes or when studying?
8. Do you separate your thinking between English and Arabic during the English classes or when studying?
9. Your teacher sometimes used Arabic and sometimes used English only to explain a certain point, when she used Arabic/English, what did you do at that time at a cognitive level? What happened at that time in your mind? What you were thinking? What went through your mind?
10. How did you feel when the teacher uses Arabic/ English?

Appendix 5

Open- ended questionnaires for teachers

(Before piloting)

1. Do you think that using Arabic when you are teaching English is pedagogically effective? Why and why not?
2. What is the ELI's policy regarding the use of Arabic in the English classrooms?
3. To what extent does your use of Arabic reflect the policy of the institute?
4. How do you feel about your own use of Arabic when teaching English?
5. How do you think students feel when you use Arabic?/ use English only? With regards to students' affective responses (e.g., happy, comfortable, anxious, frustrated...) and Students' learning progress (learn fast, understand more, participate more) when Arabic is used).
6. In your opinion, what are teaching strategies and techniques that can substitute the use of Arabic when you teach English?
7. What are your reasons for using Arabic/ not using Arabic?
8. How do you think students react to your use of Arabic?
9. Do you think that students have certain preference for certain nationality?
10. Do you think that students' level of proficiency affect their reaction to the teacher's Arabic use?
11. Do you find using Arabic effective or helpful when teaching certain skills more than others? Which skills and why?
12. Do you think that using English only is effective to get the message across? Why?

Appendix 6

Open- ended questionnaires for teachers

(After piloting)

1. Do you think that using Arabic when you are teaching English is pedagogically effective? Why and why not?
2. What is the ELI's policy regarding the use of Arabic in the English classrooms?
3. How do you feel about your own use of Arabic when teaching English?
4. How do you think students feel when you use Arabic?/ use English only? With regards to students' affective responses (e.g., happy, comfortable, anxious, frustrated...) and Students' learning progress (learn fast, understand more, participate more) when Arabic is used).
5. When students don't understand something in the lesson, how would you typically facilitate their comprehension in English?
6. What are your reasons for using Arabic/ not using Arabic?
7. How do you think students react to your use of Arabic?
8. Do you think that students consider teachers' nationality in the English teacher? How? why? In what ways?
9. Do you think that using English only is effective to get the message across? Why?

Appendix 7

Informed Consent Form

(Vice-dean)

KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA
Ministry of Higher Education
KING ABDULAZIZ UNIVERSITY
Women's Campus



المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الملك عبد العزيز
شطر الطالبات

Ref. :

Date:

Encl.:

مكتب وكالة المعهد
Institute Dean's Office

الرقم :

التاريخ :

المرفقات :

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Using Arabic as a Strategy to Teach EFL at a University in Saudi Arabia

Dear Dr. Al-Johani,

This is Shams Bukhari, one of the teaching assistants who is doing a PhD in Moray House School of Education at the University of Edinburgh. The aim of my study is to investigate teachers' use of Arabic and students' responses to their teachers' use in English classrooms.

- My data collection process will be in the second semester of 2013.
- In order to answer my research questions, classroom observations, teachers' interviews and students' interviews will be used to gather data.
- Participants will be assured that their responses will be confidential and they will remain anonymous. They will be informed that their participation is completely voluntary and they are free to withdraw at any time during the interviews and observations.
- Summary of the results will be sent to participants once they are completed.
- If you have any questions about my study, Please feel free to contact me at s1054407@sms.ed.ac.uk. Tel. +966 505592933.

I have read and understood the above and consent and I will grant Shams Bukhari access to the ELI to observe teachers and interview both teachers and students. I understand that I will be able to keep a copy of this informed consent form for my records.

.....
Signature

12-8-2012
Date



Thank You for Your Cooperation

ص.ب: ٤٢٨١٧ جـ ٢١٥٥١
P.O.Box: 42817 Jeddah: 21551

فاكس : ٦٤٠٠٠٠٠ - ٢٧٢١٣
Fax.: 6400000 - 27213
E-Mail: elig@kau.edu.sa

٢٧٠٩١-٢٧٢٠٨ / ٦٤٠٠٠٠٠ : ☎
☎ : 6400000 / 27208-27091

Appendix 8

Informed Consent Form

(Teachers)

An Investigation of Students' Responses to Arabic used by EFL Teachers Depending on their L1 Background in a Saudi Arabian University

Please read the following and sign it if you agree with what it says.

I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research project on the topic mentioned above to be conducted by **Mrs. Shams Bukhari**, who is a PhD student in **Moray House School of Education at the University of Edinburgh**. The broad goal of this research study is to investigate teachers' and students' language use in EFL classrooms. Specifically, I have been asked to be observed during the English classrooms and I have been told that the observation will be audio recorded. I also have been asked to be given a questionnaire which should take no longer than 20 minutes to complete.

I have been told that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I also understand that if at any time during the research process I feel unable or unwilling to continue, I am free to leave. That is, my participation in this study is completely voluntary, and I may withdraw from it at any time without negative consequences. [In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.] My name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in any report subsequently produced by the researcher.

I have been informed that if I have any general questions about this project, I should feel free to contact **Mrs. Shams Bukhari** at s1054407@sms.ed.ac.uk. Tel: +966 505592933.

I have read and understand the above and consent to participate in this study. My signature is not a waiver of any legal rights. Furthermore, I understand that I will be able to keep a copy of the informed consent form for my records

Participant's Signature

Date

Thank You for Your Cooperation

Appendix 9

Informed Consent Form

(Students)

An Investigation of Students' Responses to Arabic used by EFL Teachers Depending on their L1 Background in a Saudi Arabian University

Dear Student,

I am Shams Bukhari, I am conducting a research study as a requirement for my PhD studies in the Moray House School of Education, the University of Edinburgh, UK. I intend to investigate teachers' and students' language use in EFL classrooms. Findings of my study are intended to develop our understanding of language use to encourage sharing of good practices.

I would like to observe classrooms and take some field notes and audio record the classroom interactions. Then, I need to interview students asking them to comment and reflect on the recordings. The recording materials will be deleted as soon as I finish analyzing them. All recordings will be anonymized. If you wish to see a copy of my notes and transcription, please note it down on the consent form.

I have been informed that participants' responses will be handled with confidentiality and all participants will remain anonymous. I am aware that participation is completely voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time during interviews. In addition, I am free to decline answering any question I do not wish to answer. I have been told that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identifiable in any report produced by the researcher.

If you have any questions about my study, please do not hesitate to contact me at s1054407@sms.ed.ac.uk

I have read and understood the above consent to participate in this study. I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research project on the topic mentioned above to be conducted

By **Mrs. Shams Bukhari**

If you are willing to participate in this study please sign

.....

.....

Participant's signature

Date

Thank You for Your Cooperation

نموذج الموافقة

(طالبات)

استخدام اللغة العربية

يرجى قراءة ما يلي والتوقيع عليه إذا كنتي تتفقين على ما ينص:

عزيزتي الطالبة،

أنا شمس بخاري، و أقوم بإجراء مشروع بحثي لمرحلة الدكتوراة بكلية التربية والتعليم بجامعة أدنبرة في المملكة المتحدة. يدور موضوعي حول موقف أستاذات اللغة الانجليزية من استخدام اللغة العربية في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية بمعهد اللغة الإنجليزية. قد يكون لدراستي بعض النتائج الإيجابية في تطوير ممارسات الأستاذات. أود أن ألاحظ الفصول الدراسية مرتين، وتسجيل بعض الملاحظات الميدانية مع القيام بالتسجيل الصوتي للفاعلات الصفية. سيتم مسح التسجيلات سرعان الانتهاء من استخدامها. إذا كنت ترغبين في رؤية نسخة من ملاحظاتي يرجى تدوين ذلك أسفل استمارة الموافقة.

- أوافق على المشاركة بحرية وطوعية في البحث حول الموضوع المذكور أعلاه وبلغني أنه سيتم التعامل مع ردود المشاركات في هذا البحث بسرية تامة و أن أسماء جميع المشاركات ستبقى مجهولة. وأنا أدرك أن المشاركة تطوعية تماما وأنا حرة في الانسحاب في أي وقت خلال الملاحظات الفصلية. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، أنا حرة في رفض الإجابة على أي سؤال لا أود الإجابة عليه. لقد تم اخباري أن أسمى لن يكون مرتبط بأي تقرير من قبل الباحثة.

- إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة عن دراستي، لا تترددي في التواصل معي عبر بريدي الالكتروني

[@sms.ed.ac.uk1054407s](mailto:sms.ed.ac.uk1054407s)

- لقد قرأت وفهمت ما تنص عليه هذه الدراسة وأوافق بالمشاركة في هذا المشروع البحثي حول الموضوع المذكور أعلاه والذي ستجريه سارة أحمد باعشين.

التاريخ

اسم الطالبة

نشكر لكم حسن تعاونكم

Appendix 10

Sample of transcription of classroom observation

Arabic native teacher: Saudi. Level/ Pre- intermediate. Time: 1- 1:50

Transcription including Arabic usage
<p>Teacher: Work in groups in groups girls work in groups (Students were talking with each other). Move girls please move yalla.</p> <p>The things you have to do and the things that you don't have to do.</p> <p><i>(The teacher was explaining the activity to one group of students).</i></p>
<p>Teacher: So you don't have to or you have to?</p> <p>Students: (unintelligible answer).</p> <p>Teacher: No, you have to it's different hatha ashaya'a lazim tisaweeh you have to. I have to come this morning to class, but I don't like it. Alashya'a illi lazim tisaweehaya'ni inti fi baytik yoam aljuma'a lazim tirouhi li-ahlik</p> <p>Students: I have to.</p> <p>Teacher: Exactly thank you very much.</p> <p><i>(The teacher is explaining an activity to another group of students)</i></p>
<p>Teacher: What day? What day do you go?</p> <p>Student: Friday.</p> <p>Teacher: Friday. Tayeb Do you have to do it walla you don't have to do it? Walla is it something optional? Ya'ani mu lazim.</p> <p>Student: No.</p> <p>Teacher: So you don't have to do OK alashya'a illi lazim you have to do for example I have to visit my uncle every Monday. kul wahda tiddi one example.</p>
<p>Student: I don't have sleep.</p> <p>Teacher: to sleep. I don't have to hutti to after.</p> <p>Student: to sleep early.</p>

Teacher: Do you have to or you don't have to? I don't have, student replied.
to **eewa akhtari**

Students: go to school.

Teacher: you don't have to go to school! What are you doing here! **Esh bitsawi hena**. You don't have to? No you have to come to school **tigdari tiqouli** I don't want to go to school. It's different. When you don't want to do something is different from you don't have to do something

(One of the students asked in English about the meaning of the word basics)

Teacher: For example, you study the first year in college or in university English Math's **kullaha esh?** The basics of the next year **Insha-Allah . Esh ya'ani asas?**
Students: basics.

Teacher: 'Have' here **indana** it has two usages. The first one is when you possess something and the second meaning is the things you have to do **illi hia** when you are obliged when you are obliged to do something ok **ya'ani esh?** Let's see here in the blue box. Let's read. Have and have got can express **esh Indnana ma'anayane . Whahid** possession **ya'ani eh** possession?
Possession means **milkiya**. The other thing is action. Al-action (the action) **Illu huwa darasna fi al**-listening **nafsu** OK girls? So this is the first one. **Fihimtu banat** . Read the example.

Teacher: I've got to go now. Alright? So have got plus the infinitive **esh huwa al**-infinitive? **Alfi'il fi al Masdar** . Like Got to go to work, To help. The infinitive is a verb after to. Have to express obligation

Teacher: The form is the same for all persons. There is no "s" in the third person. **Ya'ani mu lazim tiguli** .he can sing **ashan fi he aw** she, OK?

Student: **Eish Ya'ani?**

Teacher: **Al**-grammar **ennou ennouto fi box hada mu lazim ahut** to? **eewa ma'a hadi ma tehouti** to **hadi kullaha** . So can she drive? Should I go home? **Fi "s" fi al**-verb **hina?**

Student: **La'a**.

Teacher: **Marra misahilinaha**

Teacher: To form a negative add not. There is no don't and doesn't. I wouldn't. **Alatool lamman tibghi** when you want to make it negative, in the negative form, you just put not. I wouldn't lie. You mustn't steal.

Teacher: Most model verbs refer to the present and future. They are not in the past form. **Illi hia hadi kullaha banat** all of them are in the present and future form except what? What do you think? **Fi** one word only. It's in the past.

Student: Could.

Teacher: Excellent

Teacher: OK girls now. Let's see. There are Obligations. Obligation **nafsaha** there are levels to it. OK. Like for example the words must and should aright and have to. **Hadi ma hanakhudha alheen bas** just an introduction. There are levels. When to use must? When something is very very important. Like your boss tells you for example: you must do this or you'll be fired.

Teacher: Like for example you should take a break. It's an advice.

Student: You should eat healthy food.

Teacher: Yes Excellent. You should eat healthy food. Ok so **ya'animathalan** your mum **mumkin tigullik** your mum **mumkin tigullik aktar shay** should OK.

Because it's best for you. It's good for you.

Teacher: 'Have' is the least authoritarian form. So you can say for example: I have to go. **Lamman ahad mathalan yikhatbik inti yigullik mathalan:** I think you have to do this. I think you have to do this. It's just his opinion **ya'ni mu lazim.** He's not really insisting.

(The teacher is explaining the pronunciation of have and had)

Ya'ani lamman nishoufahum fi al-awal I have a good job. I have to work hard. Are the same words, right? Do you think there is a difference?

Student: No.

(The teacher is explaining the meaning of some jobs)

Teacher: Architect?

Student: Building.

Teacher: He designs buildings. Right. Lawyer? A lawyer. Who wants to be a lawyer? **Ya'ani eish?**

Student: **Muhami.**

Teacher: Yes. Ambulance driver?

Student: **esa'af, sa'ik esa'af**

Teacher: Yes. Police officer?

Student: **dhabit**

Teacher: Very good. Soldier works where?

Students: Police

Teacher: yeah but where does he work? In the Army. **Ya'ani eish?**

army? Army. The soldier works in the Army. The army **aljaish** OK.

Appendix 11

Example of the coding process from students' interviews during the open coding stage

Student	Data extract	Code	category	theme
Student 1	Regarding Mrs. (...), sometimes she does not need to translate into Arabic. For instance, <u>when she says: he moves and translates that into Arabic, it is simple and there's no need to do that as we already know what it means.</u>	Helpless use of Arabic	Attitude to teachers' Arabic use.	Students' attitudes to Arabic use in EFL classrooms
Student 2	<u>I do not prefer it when the teacher uses Arabic.</u>	Arabic is not favoured		
Student 3	<u>I try to understand myself without Arabic interference</u> because I want to develop my English.	Negative effect of Arabic	Attitude to students' own use of Arabic	
Student 4	This wastes my time especially in writing because <u>we have the opposite rules in Arabic writing.</u>	L1 interference		

Appendix 11 (continued)

Example of the coding process from students' interviews during the template coding stage

Students	Data extract	Codes	categories	Themes
Student 1	<u>I first try to give another example (synonym) with myself</u> if it is the same meaning as she provides, so that's it.	Thinking in Arabic	Mental translation	Students' Cognitive strategies to teachers' English use
Student 2	I can <u>understand it from the context</u> or from the English explanation.	Thinking in English	Figuring out the meaning from context	
Student 3	<u>During the English class, I try not think in Arabic. I try just to think in English.</u>		Focusing in English	
Student 4	I <u>feel comfortable (relieved)</u> as my own language is there although sometimes I <u>feel confused</u> but I still feel comfortable as I know and understand what is the teacher is talking about. But it still makes me <u>get bored when</u> she translates each sentence or word.	Positive feeling	Affective responses to Arabic use	Students' affective responses to teachers' Arabic use
Student 5	<u>I feel comfortable when</u> Arabic is used because I can understand more.	Positive feeling		
Student 6	<u>sometimes I feel confused when Arabic is used too much</u>	Negative feeling		